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THE EFFECTS OF THE MAGIC CIRCLE PROGRAM ON THE SELF-CONCEPTS OF CHILDREN IN THE FOURTH AND FIFTH GRADE

by

© KAREN CHARLOTTE ANDERSON

A THESIS
SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE
STUDIES AND RESEARCH
IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT FOR THE REQUIREMENTS
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THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH

The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research, for acceptance, a thesis entitled "The Effects of the Magic Circle Program on the Self-Concepts of Children in the Fourth and Fifth Grade" submitted by Karen Charlotte Anderson in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Education.

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Supervisor

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Date August 19...

TO MY MOTHER AND FATHER

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to investigate the effects of the Magic Circle program on the self-concepts of children in the fourth and fifth grade of a Canadian elementary school. This developmental program purports to assist in the building of more positive self-concepts in children. Palomares (1974) stated that the Magic Circle "is a structured method of developing self-awareness, positive self-concept, and supportive interaction in children using cues and follow-up activities suggested by the curriculum" (p. 20).

The literature reviewed suggested that the self-concept is the organized perceptual entity resulting from present and past observation. It is essentially a social product arising from experience with other people (Raimy, 1943). People with whom the child interacts - family, teachers and peers- exert a pervasive influence on the formation and change of the self-concept (Perkins, 1958a). A vast amount of literature related to the idea of the self-concept indicates that mental health and personal adjustment are influenced by the individual's feelings of personal adequacy.

The sample consisted of 51 students from two classrooms within the same school. In each of these classrooms, the students were randomly assigned to the following three groups: the Magic Circle (treatment) group, the Expressive Arts (placebo) group and the Independent Reading (control)

group.

Five instruments, measuring various dimensions of self-concept, were administered by pre- and post-testing. Over a 10-week period, the Magic Circle (treatment) group, Expressive Arts (placebo) group and Independent Reading (control) group met twice weekly. Each of these sessions were 30-minutes in length.

The results of this study indicated that there was no significant difference among the treatment, placebo and control groups in terms of pre- and post-test scores on the five instruments.

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CHAPTER I

Introduction to the Study

The process of education has passed through several stages, each with its own special emphasis. Prior to the popularity of John Dewey's philosophy of education, the child was viewed as a passive recipient absorbing knowledge as it was presented by the teacher. As a result of changing attitudes, later the child was considered to be an active participant in the learning process (Myrick & Moni, 1973). During the Sputnik era of the 1950's, increased attention was given to subject matter sometimes at the expense of interest and relevancy of material to the child. At this time there was an emphasis on the Sciences and Mathematics (Weinstein & Fantini, 1970). Now there is a plea for education to meet the needs of the whole child. This educational thrust is translated as the need for a curriculum which meets the humanistic goals of education, one that has affective as well as cognitive dimensions (Brown, 1971).

Combs (1962) expressed the goals of education as developing fully-functioning individuals when he said:

> The fullest possible flowering of human potentiality is the business of education. It is our reason for being. Whatever we decide is the nature of the fully functioning, self-actualizing individual must become at once the goal of education (p. 2).

Valett (1972) emphasized humanistic education when he stated the following:

> Education is perceived here as a lifelong process of developmental experiences. Effective education changes people in accord with the goals or objectives of the system. The educator is charged by society to bring about certain desirable behavioral changes in his pupils. Presumably these changes are the result of clearly desirable goals and relevant experiences designed to accomplish these ends. Humanistic-affective education recognizes the primary importance of the development of those social and personal skills essential to living in human society (p. 17).

Valett (1972) suggested that "this is not to disparge the importance of traditional cognitive development, excellence, and achievement" (p. 17). Humanistic education is concerned with the development of the whole child including his cognitive as well as his affective abilities (Valett, 1972).

Levine (1973) supported this view of education when she stated that if education is indeed a preparation for life and is also life itself, then it is the responsibility of educators to teach the whole child, not just the cognitive components; so that the child is in contact with his full repertoire of human learning potential. Faust (1968) defined cognition and affect and emphasized the interaction between these components when he stated:

> Another dimension of this changed concept of intelligence is the interrelatedness of cognition (intellect, reasoning) and affect (feeling, attitudes). A major

> objective of the elementary school is the cognitive development of the child's feeling and meanings (affect) and desires and purposes (conation) to this development (p. 15).

Confluent education is the term for the interaction of cognitive and affective components of learning, also referred to as humanistic education (Brown, 1971).

Many developments have occurred in the field of guidance in the last ten years which reflect changes in the education process (Bedrosian, Sara, & Pearlman, 1970). Zingle (1972) suggested:

> The three phases of guidance are, the developmental, the preventive, and the remedial. The developmental phase tries to determine potentials of children and establish a physical and emotional climate conductive of optimum development of these potentials (p. 3).

Zingle (1972) stated:

> I am convinced that it is only to the extent that our elementary guidance program of the future turns away from crisis and prevention approaches, and becomes, instead, developmental, that we will be able to make a significant contribution to creating a society of fully-functioning human beings (p. 3).

Zingle (1972) emphasized the potential of the developmental approach when he stated "if the developmental approach is properly utilized it will automatically serve a preventive function as well as lessen the need for remedial guidance" (p. 5).

Bedrosian, Sara, and Pearlman (1970) stated the following:

> In the past decade many developments have occurred in the field of guidance. Perhaps the most significant is the acceptance that guidance in the elementary school is basically developmental and, unlike remedial services that are limited to a few individuals, should be made available for the entire student population. This assertion has caused schools to reexamine their guidance services and to develop new programs that are more group oriented and developmental in approach (p. 124).

Consistent with this trend are programs that use structured learning activities and materials to provide students with experiences related to the acquisition of appropriate behaviors for personal and social development (Halpin, Haplin,& Hartley, 1972). Affective development programs such as the Human Development Program: Magic Circle (Bessell & Palomares, 1970), Developing Understanding of Self and Others (Dinkmeyer, 1970), Focus on Self Development (Anderson & Henner, 1972) and Toward Affective Development (Dupont, Gardner,& Brody, 1974) have been developed to meet the needs of affective education through the process of group participation.

Children need the chance to communicate at the affective level as a member of a group, in order to become effective in social interaction (O'Keefe, 1971). Affective programs emphasize the significance of the self-concept and through varied activities attempt to positively enrich the child's self-concept.

Educators have perceived the need for preventive mental health programs concentrating on affective development. The increasing interest in group guidance and counseling techniques have led to the development of structured programs of this nature. Affective development programs are frequently implemented in schools without having been adequately researched. They are often poorly developed from a psychological perspective and unsubstantiated claims are frequently made about their positive effects on students who participate in the affective programs (McMurry, 1977).

Zingle (1973) effectively expressed the relationship between the developmental model and the goals of education when he stated :

> Some people call me an idealist when I talk about creating happy, healthy, fully-functioning, self-actualizing people. But I am convinced that if we turn away from crisis and prevention approaches to a developmental approach, we have an excellent chance of achieving that goal. I believe that man can become far more than we thought he could, and we can have a share in helping him achieve his potential. And that means that education is not simply a holding operation, but rather this business that you and I are in is perhaps the most important business in the world. Only if we hold on to this developmental model can we contribute on revolutionary dimensions to a better world. (p. 60).

Psychologists and educators such as Erich Fromm, Carl Rogers, Gordon Allport, George Kelly and Arthur Combs have described the fully-functioning personality through their writings. These authors, as well as several others,

assign the self-concept a central role in influencing behavior. The self-concept of the child has been selected as an affective area of prime importance (Loveridge, 1976). Combs, Avila, and Purkey (1971) stated that "the most important single factor affecting behavior is self-concept" (p. 39). Coopersmith (1959), Fink (1962), and Combs and Soper (1963) have demonstrated the interaction between academic and affective components in the learning process. Coopersmith (1959) and Fink (1962) found that the child who has an adequate self-concept was more socially and academically effective. Combs and Soper (1963) found that a significant relationship existed between feelings of adequacy and educational achievement. Dinkmeyer (1971b) summarized the findings of these educators when he stated that "affective development can no longer be left to chance" (p. 65).

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to experimentally investigate the effects that a particular affective program (the Human Development Program: Magic Circle) would have on the self-concepts of grade four and five students.

Bessell and Palomares (1973) stated that the Magic Circle is a preventive mental health program concentrating on affective development. Palomares (1974) emphasized that the Magic Circle is a structured method of developing self-awareness, positive self-concept and supportive interaction with children. This program is based on the

social psychological theories of Karen Horney, Alfred Adler and Harry Stack Sullivan.

Palomares and Barone (1973) stated that the Magic Circle deals with the following three areas :

1. Awareness: The development and understanding of feelings, thoughts and behaviors, as well as values of self and others.
2. Mastery: The development of self-confidence....
3. Social Interaction: The development of effective interpersonal relationships, as well as the realization that people's feelings and behaviors are affected by others. (p. 4).

Bessell and Palomares (1973) stated the following as being objectives of the Magic Circle:

1. To improve each child's self-concept,
2. To assist each child in understanding and becoming more aware of his own emotions,
3. To increase the child's respect for others,
4. To improve the child's skills in interpersonal relationships,
5. To aid the child in realizing that he and other people are okay in being themselves,
6. To foster the child's responsibility for his own behavior.

Bessell and Palomares (1973) stated the following as being the specific objectives of the program:

1. To increase the child's ability to articulate his thoughts verbally,
2. To increase the child's ability to listen attentively to other people,

3. To increase the child's ability to reflect to people what he heard the others say,
4. To increase the child's ability to understand how thoughts, feelings and behaviors operate in people.

Palomares and Bessell (1973) emphasized that active and reflective listening skills are learned by the children in the Magic Circle. Repeating and paraphrasing similarities and differences and reviewing new awarenesses, all help children to feel listened to, accepted and validated.

Although the Magic Circle program materials are reasonably priced, (at $8.50 per booklet, 1979), it is a costly program in terms of in-service training of school staff and the time involvement in the actual implementation of the program. School time is valuable and therefore an affective development program must generate research results which show significant positive change in self-concept, interpersonal relationships and behavior.

This study arises from the need for further research into the validity of the Magic Circle. If the school systems are willing to invest their valuable staff and student time into the Magic Circle, the effectiveness must be evident in the literature. The limited and somewhat contradictory research results indicate the need for further research into the effectiveness of the program relative to the stated objectives.

Problem Statement

The problem of the research under investigation was to study the effects of the Magic Circle (treatment) group, Expressive Arts (placebo) group and Independent Reading (control) group in order to demonstrate a significant difference, if any, between pre- and post-test scores on measures of self-concept.

Limitations and Assumptions

The following were limitations of the present study:

1. The majority of subjects were not naive. One and a half years prior to this study several subjects experienced minimal exposure to the Magic Circle through the school counselor. However, it was assumed from the amount of exposure and from the amount of time which has lapsed that the effects of this initial exposure were minimal.
2. Three classes of students were separately divided with students assigned to the Magic Circle (treatment) group, Expressive Arts (placebo) group or Independent Reading (control) group. One of the three classes of students received an additional three half-hour sessions of Magic Circle each week. These additional three half-hour sessions of the Magic Circle were led by the classroom teacher.

The following were assumptions made in the present study:

1. It was assumed that the random selection of subjects would have the most unbiased results.

2. It was assumed that these subjects from Grace Martin Elementary School were typical fourth and fifth grade students representative of students from middle socio-economic families in sub-urban areas and therefore, the results of this study can be generalized to similar populations.
3. Since student absenteeism was relatively infrequent, it was assumed that the overall effects of absenteeism would be minimal. A consistent effort was made to administer pre- or post-test measurements to absentee subjects upon their return to class.
4. It was assumed that the treatment (Magic Circle) was in effect for an adequate period of time.

Definition of Terms

For the purpose of this study the terms listed below will be operationally defined.

Self-concept: "Those perceptions, beliefs, feelings, attitudes and values which the individual views as describing himself" (Perkins, 1958a, p. 221).

Expressive Arts: Communication by representation through creative activities (Friend and Guralnik, 1957).

Placebo: Although the Expressive Arts group could be designated as an experimental treatment group, for purposes of this study it is operationally defined as a false treatment (placebo) group.

Overview of the Study

The effects of the Magic Circle (treatment) groups were compared to the Expressive Arts (placebo) groups and Independent Reading (control) groups. The Magic Circle (treatment) groups participated in structured circle sessions outlined in the "Magic Circle" Human Development Program Level V manual. The Expressive Arts groups were involved in various creative activities such as puppetry, drama, writing, drawing, designing and decorating. The Independent Reading (control) groups sessions consisted of independent silent reading and listening to recordings of popular fairy tales. Reports were written, by the group members, on their reading and listening selections.

Following the introduction as to the background and purposes of this study in Chapter I, a review of the literature, with emphasis on developmental approaches for improving self-concept, is discussed in Chapter II. Chapter III contains description of the design and methods utilized in collecting data. Chapter IV contains analysis of the statistical data and a summary of the results which are derived in the process of this study. A summary of the results and their implications are presented in Chapter V, along with recommendations for further research.

CHAPTER II

Review of the Literature

The Self-Concept

> A person's self is the "sum total of all he can call his"(2). The self includes, among other things, a system of ideas, attitudes, values, and commitments (3). The self is a person's total subjective environment. It is a distinctive "center of experience and significance"(4). The self constitutes a person's inner world as distinguished from the "outer world" consisting of all other people and things (Jersild, 1952, p. 9).

The individual's self-concept consists of the persisting way the individual perceives himself in various life situations. It includes not only the individual's views of his physical characteristics, but also his identification with significant others. His perception of himself in varied situations together with the people, ideas and values which he views as characteristic of himself constitute his self-concept. The self-concept emerges through the internalization of perceived responses of significant others toward him. People with whom the child interacts-family, teachers and peers-exert a pervasive influence on the formation and change of the self-concept (Perkins, 1958a).

The self develops in childhood when that which is inherent in the child's make-up is combined with the unfolding of life's experiences. The self which evolves is the totality of a person's experiences in his unique existence. It is a composite of the person's thoughts and feelings, his ideas of what he is, what he has become, and what he might

become and as James (1902) stated the "sum total of all that he can call his" (Jersild, 1960).

A vast amount of literature related to the ideas of the self and self-concept indicates that mental health and personal adjustment are influenced by the individual's feelings of personal adequacy. The individual must maintain a healthy orientation and think of himself in positive ways if he is to form a positive self-concept. The growth of a positive self-concept is a critical step toward developing a healthy self-image (Hamachek, 1972).

The concept of the self is the key to understanding mental health. The individual is developing those potential resources of his "real self" and utilizing them in a manner which is harmonious with his total way of life.

Calhoun and Morse (1977) reported a theoretical difference between self-concept and self-esteem. They define self-concept as the description an individual uses to identify his nature and self-esteem as an individual's satisfaction with his self-concept. Calhoun and Morse (1977) concluded:

> The self-concept can be altered only gradually, employing intensive stimulation from people with whom the child has already established strong relationships (significant others). On the other hand, self-esteem can and does change from day to day (p. 321).

Social Psychological Views of the Self-Concept

> Interest in the self, what it is and how it develops, is not a recent phenomenon. As a theoretical concept, the self has ebbed and flowed with the currents of philosophical and psychological pondering since the seventeenth century when the French mathematician and philosopher, René Decartes first discussed the "cognite," or self, as a thinking substance. With Decartes pointing the way, the self was subjected to vigorous philosophical examinations of such thinkers as Leibnitz, Locke, Hume, and Berkeley....
> Study of the self was not something which could be easily investigated under rigidly controlled laboratory conditions. As a consequence, the subject was not considered as an appropriate one for scientific pursuit. Nonetheless, the concept was kept alive during the early part of the twentieth century by such men as Cooley, Mead, Dewey, and James (Hamachek, 1971, p. 6).

Several great psychologists have been either directly or indirectly related to a humanistic social-psychological orientation to the study of the self. Contributors such as Alfred Adler, Gordon Allport, Arthur Combs, Charles Cooley, Erik Erikson, Erich Fromm, Karen Horney, William James, Abraham Maslow, George Mead, Donald Snygg and Harry Stack Sullivan, among others, have each accorded an important or central role to self-concept. Five theorists who describe the social interaction processes involved in the development of the self were dealt with here in some detail.

(a) Theorists

Mead

Among those who have emphasized the social origins of

the self is George H. Mead. Mead considers the self as essentially a social structure arising through social experiences. Thus, when the individual assumes the attitudes of another or imitates another individual as if it were his own response, the self arises. Gradually, the child becomes a social being in his own experience and he acts toward himself in a similar manner to that in which he acts toward others. Thus, the self is rooted in the social conditions relevant to the individual and is developed from the interaction between the individual and the social milieu (Hamachek, 1971).

Cooley

C.H. Cooley, like G.H. Mead, was one of the earliest social psychologists to explore the concept of self. Cooley emphasized the contribution of the social milieu for the individual's self-image. He developed a theory consistent with the view that the self develops as a consequence of interpersonal interactions. Thus, he postulated the concept of "the looking-glass self" (Hamachek, 1971).

Cooley (1902) described what he meant by the "looking-glass self":

> In a very large and interesting class of cases the social reference takes the form of a somewhat definite imagination of how one's self... appears in a particular mind, and the kind of self-feeling one has is determined by the attitude toward this attributed to that other mind. A social self might be called the reflected or looking-glass self.

> Each to each a looking glass
> Reflects the other that doth pass.
> The self that is most important is a reflection, largely, from the minds of others.... We live on, cheerful, self-confident...until in some rude hour we learn that we do not stand as well as we thought we did, that the image of us is tarnished (p. 20).

Sullivan

Closely related to the social interaction ideas of Mead and Cooley are the theoretical ideas of Sullivan who created what has been referred to as an interpersonal theory of personality development. A central theme of Sullivan's theory of personality is the concept of "interpersonal relationship". Through the assimilation of reflected appraisals, the child comes to develop expectations and attitudes towards himself. The self is composed of reflected appraisals and the child's earliest appraisals originate from significant others. Therefore, if the appraisals from significant others have been negative the self-image is likely to be negative. Whereas, if the reflected appraisals have been primarily positive, the self-image is likely to be positive (Jersild, 1952).

Sullivan delineated six stages of development which are typical of the Western European cultures (Hall & Lindzey, 1970). These developmental stages, from infancy to maturity, are characterized by the appearance of different interpersonal relationships (Dinkmeyer, 1965).

Sullivan emphasized the child's way of perceiving the world and adapting to it. He believed that the infant

learns to make differentiations based on anxiety and that these differentiations eventually become the self-concept (Dinkmeyer, 1965). Hall and Lindzey (1970) stated:

> less severe forms of anxiety can be informative. In fact, Sullivan believes that anxiety is the first greatly educative influence in living. Anxiety is transmitted to the infant by the "mothering one" who is herself expressing anxiety in her looks, tone of voice, and general demeanor . (p. 145).

By approving or disapproving, significant others are the source of the substance that is built into the self-dynamics. These experiences along with the attitudes of significant others are the ones incorporated into the self (Jersild, 1952).

Adler

Of the three neo-Freudian theorists, Sullivan, Horney and Adler, the latter theorist "places greater stress on the importance of actual weakness and infirmities in producing low self-esteem than the other theorists do" (Coopersmith, 1967, p. 33). In contrast to Freud's major assumptions that man's behavior is motivated by instincts, Adler indicated that man is inherently a social being who acquires a life style which is predominantly social in orientation. Adler suggested that social interest is inborn, thus being biological in origin (Hall & Lindzey, 1970).

The basic ingredient which determines behavior, according to Adlerian theory of social psychology, is the individual's conception of his "life plan" or the goal. According to

Adler, the self is highly personalized in that an individual interprets and gives meaning to his experiences. He further stressed consciousness as the center of personality which is unlike Freud who made the unconscious the center of personality. Adler viewed man as a conscious being aware of his reasons for his behavior. In fact, the individual is viewed as being fully aware of and capable of striving toward goals in fulfilment of a "life plan" (Hamachek, 1971). Hall and Lindzey (1970) stated :

> striving for superiority becomes socialized, the ideal of a perfect society takes the place of purely personal ambition and selfish gain. By working on the common good, man compensates for his individual weakness. (p. 125).

Adler suggested that behavior is a result of hereditary and environmental forces, but also of the manner in which the individual experiences them (Adler, 1935). The self is the individual's creative power to evaluate his experiences and is crucial in understanding the ways of behavior.

Horney

> The impact of social relationship on the development of the self has been emphasized by Karen Horney. Karen Horney's ideas evolve from her primary concept of basic anxiety, which she defined as the feeling a child has of being isolated and helpless in a potentially hostile world. A wide range of adverse factors in the environment can produce this insecurity in a child (Hamachek, 1971, p. 51).

Horney developed a list of ten "neurotic" needs which

result in irrational solutions to the basic problems of disturbed human relationships. She stresses that the source of inner conflict stems from these basic needs. Horney thus describes the neurotic as one who is attempting to make the psuedo real and is consequently fighting the demands of the real self at the same time. In further clarification, Horney differentiates among three different neurotic or maladaptive styles: (1) moving toward people by surrendering independence, (2) moving away from people by defeat or resignation, and (3) moving against people in a spirit of bitter individualness (Bessell, 1972).

Horney described the idealized self as a pseudo-identity. The "idealized self" contains unconscious components whereas the "ideal self" represents the individual's aspirations of which he is conscious (Jersild, 1960).

(b) Significant Others

The self-concept is the organized perceptual entity resulting from present and past observations. It is essentially a social product arising from experience with other people (Raimy, 1943). The individual perceives himself on the basis of the way he is treated by those who are significant in the early years. He learns about himself from his own experiences and through the mirrored image of himself which he receives from others (Combs & Snygg, 1959). While at first such identifications occur through the individual's intimate experiences with his family, as his experiences broaden his capacity for identification with others broadens

to include significant others such as peers and teachers (Combs & Snygg, 1959).

> Feelings about the self are established early in life and are modified by subsequent experiences. Among the significant people believed to affect the child's feeings about himself are first, his parents, and, later his teachers (Davidson & Lang, 1960, p. 107).

Family

> No experience in the development of the child's concept of self is quite so important or far-reaching as his earliest experiences in his family. It is the family which introduces a child to life, which provides him with his earliest and most permanent self definitions (Combs & Snygg, 1959, p. 134).

It is with his family that the child first discovers those basic concepts of self which will guide his behavior. The family is the first and probably the most important socializing agency (Dinkmeyer, 1965).

> The social relationships of the child generally extend outside from the nurturing mother to the father, siblings, and neighborhood peers. These persons form the social context for the vast majority of experiences encountered during childhood (Coopersmith, 1967, p. 159).

The family is the major defining influence on the child. As the child is successful or unsuccessful in making his way in his family, he experiences the first perception of adequacy or inadequacy. Spitz, who studied hospitalized children, reported several examples of feelings of inadequacy in children when they were left alone by their parents for a long time period. It is through their interaction with

family members that young children begin to differentiate the self. The more positive the self-definition acquired, the greater the feeling of adequacy; whereas the more negative the self-definition acquired, the greater the feeling of inadequacy. Experience in later life through identification with significant others may change the concept of self developed by the young child within the family context. However, these changes are apt to be slow to come about. The basic self-concept may be so deeply ingrained that even the most dramatic experiences may not easily change the individual (Combs & Syngg, 1959).

Peers

The child eventually moves from the family circle to peer relationships. Peer relationships seem to assume an increasingly important role in the formation of social behavior. The child moves away from dependency upon parents and siblings and develops a growing interest in peers. Peers set certain models for behavior and provide a contrast to the values and standards in the home. Thus, the child has another avenue for identification and expression (Dinkmeyer, 1965).

> As a child grows, social interactions become increasingly important, not only because of the part it plays in affective development but also for its value in cognitive development. Children need many opportunities to interact with other children, to become aware of other person's viewpoints and perceptions (Brunk, 1973, p. 88).

During the early school years the child sees himself through the eyes of his peers and his self-concept is affected by their attitudes. It is from this group that the child achieves his identity. The self-concept also changes as the child engages in competition with his peers when new standards of self-evaluation are set.

> There are three potential bases for the social isolation of the child with low self-esteem: they are not valued and sought by others, they prefer isolation, and their environments provide limited opportunities for social interaction. From the data we and other investigators have obtained it appears that all three possibilities hold for those low in self-esteem, with the end result apparently a form of social improverishment. Thus we find subjects with low self-esteem report that they feel awkward and uncomfortable when in the presence of others[9], they are less likely to be selected as friends by other peers[10], and...they are less likely to receive attention and concern from their parents (Coopersmith, 1967, p. 160).

"Thus, above and apart for their relationships with their parents..., we find that persons with low self-esteem have suffered estrangement from their sibs and peers" (Coopersmith, 1967, p. 163).

Teachers

> The teacher's role in the development of the pupil's self-concept cannot be overstated. Too often teachers are unaware of the child's self-concept (of himself) and its implications for meaningful and effective education. In the case of a child who already suffers from a severely impaired self-concept arising from home situations, the teacher stands as the next...hope of improving the child's self-concept. (Mattocks & Jew, 1974, p. 201).

The teacher with his day-to-day contact with the child has a special relationship with the child which may affect

the self-concept of the student according to Brookover, Paterson, and Thomas (1962):

> Further evidence that others can influence a self-concept is provided by Staines[20], who demonstrated that teachers, through their roles as significant others, can alter the self-concept of their students by making positive comments to them as well as creating an atmosphere of greater psychological security. These findings are related to those of Davidson and Lang[21] who found that children's perceptions of teachers' feelings toward them correlated positively and significantly with self-perception. They also discovered that the more positive the children's perceptions of their teachers' feelings, the higher their achievement (p. 11).

A series of studies dealing with teacher-student relationships has investigated the following: (a) how children see and feel about their teacher; (b) how teachers see and feel about their students; and (c) how teachers think their students see themselves (Davidson & Lang, 1960). It has been widely recognized that teachers influence the affective as well as the cognitive development of their students. Davidson and Lang (1960) stated:

> Perkins, for example, found that teachers who had completed several years of child study were able to promote healthier personality growth in children, defined in terms of congruency between the self and the ideal self (p. 107).

Symonds (1955) has further investigated the personality development of the teacher and the resulting effect on the affective growth of the students (Davidson & Lang, 1960).

The purpose of Davidson and Lang's (1960) study was to investigate the effect of students' perceptions of their teachers' feelings toward them by way of self-perception, academic achievement and classroom behavior. The

subjects consisted of a group of 89 boys and 114 girls in grades four, five and six. Findings suggested that the students' perceptions of their teachers' feelings toward them correlated positively and significantly with self-perception. The child with the more favourable self-image was likely to perceive his teacher's feelings toward him more favourably. Furthermore the more positive the students' perceptions of the teachers' feelings the better their academic achievement and the more desirable their classroom behavior as related by the teacher. Clarke (1960) reported similar findings of a positive relationship between a student's academic performance and his perception of the academic expectations of his significant others (Purkey, 1970).

The development of positive and realistic self-images in the students depends upon what the teacher believes about himself and his students. These beliefs are not only reflected in the teacher's behavior but are also transmitted to the students and influence the students' performances. Thus the teacher's behavior in the classroom has a strong impact on students (Purkey, 1970).

Spaulding (1963) reported a significant relationship between a student's self-concept and the teacher's attitudes. Teachers who are calm, accepting and facilitative have a positive effect on students' self-concepts. While teachers who are threatening, pessimistic and sarcastic have a negative effect on students' self-concepts. Similar studies by Rosenthal and Jacobson (1968) have shown that the teacher's

expectations have a significant influence on the student's performance. This phenomenon has become known as the "self-fulfulling prophecy" or the "Pygmalion effect" (Purkey, 1970).

Related studies such as Coopersmith's (1967) illustrated that self-reliance is fostered by an environment which is well-structured. Brookover, Thomas, and Paterson (1964) reported that teacher-parent collaboration yields significant results in enhancing the self-concept and improving academic performance of students. Spaulding (1963) found a positive effect on the students' self-concepts when the teacher's behavior involved personal and private talks with students. Carlton and Moore (1966, 1968) reported that the freedom of self-directed dramatization enhanced the self-concept of elementary school students (Purkey, 1970).

The teacher has the opportunity to become the most significant adult other than the child's parents. Therefore, the teacher must realize how important he is to the healthy development of the child (Connor, 1965). It is through interaction with others that the child comes to view himself as liked, accepted, successful and capable of being liked. The crucial key to increasing the proportion of students with positive self-concepts is to help them toward successful experiences that will teach them that they are worthwhile individuals (Hamachek, 1973).

Assumptions associated with the relationship between a teacher's perception of a child's ability to learn and characteristics of the child were examined by Brown and

MacDougall (1973). These investigators studied teachers' perceptions of a child's academic and social abilities and their relationship to the child's socio-economic level, race, sex, peer associations and the student's self-perception. Four of these five hypotheses were supported. As suggested by Rist (1970), it was found that teachers did judge a student's ability to learn in terms of the student's social class membership. With respect to the student's peer group acceptance, the agreement found between the teacher's rating of the child and his classmates' ratings of him indicated that a teacher conveys his impressions of students to other class members. Sex as a variable was related to a teacher's positive perception of a child's classroom performance and generally favoured girls (Kagan, 1969). The hypothesis involving race was not supported. Their findings supported this proposition.

The extent to which specific changes in teacher behavior and attitudes influence students' acceptance by peers was investigated by Retish (1973). The basic findings of this study suggested that concentrated, public positive reinforcement by teachers can alter the social status of students with negative self-concepts. This study indicated that social-structural position can be affected.

These findings are supported by several studies on the significance of the expectations and attitudes of teachers toward students. Rosenthal and Jacobson (1968) and Beez (1967) indicated that a teacher's predispositions can influence this student's performance. The sociometric position that

a student brings into the classroom may profoundly effect his learning abilities. Schmuck (1968) stated that informal classroom group processes and personal relationships can have consequences for the student's self-concept and academic achievement. Studies indicating alteration of social status have been provided by Atkinson (1949), Chaires (1966) and Gronlund (1959). All of these studies involved the technique of special attention in modifying the social status of rejected children (Retish, 1973).

School Achievement and Self-Concept

One of the most comprehensive studies of the self-concept and school achievement was that of Brookover and his associates (1965, 1967). Brookover et al. conducted a 6-year study on the relationship between self-concept and school achievement for a particular class of students by following their performance from grade 7 through 12. The major purpose of this study was to determine whether improved self-concept resulted from the expectations and evaluations by significant others. Brookover, Erickson, and Joiner (1967) concluded that "the hypothesis that students' perceptions of the evaluations of their academic ability by others (teachers, parents, and friends) are associated with self-concepts of academic ability was confirmed" (p. 110). The most unavoidable conclusion is that the teacher's attitudes regarding the student have a significant influence on the student's success in school. When the teacher believes that the student is a low achiever, performance is influenced negatively.

The self-fulfilling prophecy has been illustrated by the research of Rosenthal and Jacobson (1968), (Purkey, 1970).

The basic hypothesis of Rosenthal and Jacobson's (1968) research was that a teacher's predisposition to success or failure of his or her students influences the student's performance. To test this hypothesis, the researchers conducted an experiment in an elementary school of 650 students. The teachers involved in the study were told that on the basis of ability tests approximately one-fifth of the students could be expected to increase in ability during the year. The teachers were given the names of the students with high potential ability when in fact the names had been chosen at random by the experimenters. When intelligence tests and other measures were administered later, those identified as potential achievers tended to be significantly higher than students who were not identified. Rosenthal and Jacobson found that the students who were later described by their teachers as having the greater potential for future success were those who had been randomly selected by the experimenter as "bloomers". The conclusion drawn by Rosenthal and Jacobson was that the teacher, through nonverbal gestures and verbal expression helped students to learn. These investigators suggested that their results were due to modification in the student's self-concept, motivation and cognitive development. These results suggested that students who are expected by their teachers to gain in achievement in fact do achieve more after one year than students who are not expected to make such gains (Purkey, 1970).

Rosenthal and Jacobson (1968) summarized findings reported in their investigation when they stated the following:

> To summarize our speculations, we may say that by what she said, by how and when she said it, her facial expressions, postures, and perhaps by her touch, the teacher may have communicated to the children of the experimental group that she expected improved intellectual performance. Such communications together with possible changes in teaching techniques may have helped the child learn by changing his self-concept, his expectations of his own behavior, and his motivation, as well as his cognitive style and skills (p. 180).

The relationship between measures of self-report self-concept, inferred self-concept and academic achievement for a group of grade five students was investigated by Nichols (1977). A study of content areas consisted of language arts, reading and mathematics. The sample consisted of 50 grade five students. The instruments utilized to measure self-concept included the Florida Key which was administered twice during the year and the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale. The California Achievement Test Form A was utilized as a measure for comparison of academic achievement. The findings of this study indicated that a significant correlation existed between academic achievement as measured by the California Achievement Test and the inferred self-concept of the individual by the content areas.

The relationship between measure of self-concept and school achievement was studied by Clark (1977). The sample population consisted of 20 migrant fifth grade students from four school districts. The subjects were administered the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale as a measure of self-report self-concept and the California Achievement Test. Results indicated that there was no significant relationship between self-concept and school achievement in fifth grade migrants.

The purpose of Jackson's (1977) study was to investigate the influence of remedial reading instruction in vocabulary and comprehension on self-concept and reading achievement of selected elementary school students. The sample consisted of 117 students. The experimental group received 120 minutes of remedial reading in addition to regular classroom reading instruction. Students were pre- and post-tested with the Nelson Reading Test and the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale. Results indicated that there was a significant difference ($p < .05$) in self-concept between experimental and control groups by sex. Female students in the control group had higher self-concept scores than the females in the experimental group. The male control group had higher self-concept scores than the female experimental group. There was also reported a difference in reading achievement between the experimental group and control group with regards to vocabulary. The control group achieved higher scores than the experimental group.

The relationship between self-concept through self-report and school achievement was studied by Morse (1964). The Self-Esteem Inventory was used to measure self-concept. For the sample of 600 students, it was reported that there was a significant decrease in the self-concept of students from grades three through five. There was some recovery for students by the eleventh grade.

Coopersmith (1959) studied the relationship between the Iowa Achievement Test and the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory with grade five and six students. He found that correlations were positive and significant ($r=.36$) ($p < .01$) between self-esteem and school achievement.

The relationship between school achievement as measured by grade-point average and self-concept was studied by Brookover, Thomas, and Paterson (1964). The sample consisted of 1,050 seventh grade students. The California Test of Mental Ability was used as a measure for IQ and an eight item questionnaire measured self-concept. The investigators reported a significant correlation ($r=.42$ males; $r=.39$ females) between self-concept and grade-point average.

Seay (1960) investigated the relationship between self-concept and reading achievement. The sample consisted of a group of 72 boys who were in an experimental remedial reading program and a matched control group without reading problems. The population of boys was of normal intelligence. It was found by the investigator that change in self-concept was positively related to experience in the remedial reading program.

Fink (1962) studied a group of grade nine students which included 20 pairs of boys and 24 pairs of girls. The combined rating of independent researchers indicated significant differences between achievers and underachievers, with academic achievers being rated as having a more positive self-concept. Fink concluded that there was a significant relationship between self-concept and academic underachievement. He reported a stronger relationship for boys than for girls. He stated that "an adequate self-concept is related to high achievement and an inadequate self-concept is related to low achievement" (Fink, 1962, p. 57).

The relationship between school achievement and self-concept was investigated by Fredman (1976). Subjects consisted of 190 fifth and sixth grade females enrolled in an upper-middle class school and males from a regular public school. Teachers grouped males according to appropriate behavior, withdrawal behavior and aggressive behavior. The Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale, the Fredman-Scale and the Willowdale School Self-Concept Scale were administered as measures of self-concept. The Stanford Achievement Test and Otis-Lennon Mental Ability Test were administered as measures of ability. Results indicated that there was a significant difference in intelligence test scores among the three research groups. The appropriate behavioral group obtained the highest mean score IQ, the withdrawn group obtained the next highest IQ and the aggressive group obtained the lowest. There was a significant

positive relationship between IQ and school self-concept, and between IQ and academic achievement.

The purpose of Zeitz's (1975) study was to examine the relationship between academic performance and self-concept. Subjects consisted of 85 intermediate students who were from low socio-economic backgrounds. The students were administered the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale. Three tests to measure differentiated self-concept were administered: How I See Myself in Language Arts, How I See Myself in Reading and How I See Myself in Math, and the SRA Assessment Survey. The results of this study indicated that the following relationships were significant: (1) academic achievement in selected areas of reading, language arts, and math and the measure of differentiated self-concept in that area; (2) the grade equivalent in selected areas of reading, language arts, and math and the measure of differentiated self-concept in that area; (3) the composite academic achievement in reading, language arts, and math and the measure of total self-concept; (4) the composite grade equivalency in reading, language arts, and math and measures of total self-concept; and (5) measures of the differentiated self-concept and measures of the total self-concept.

As we have seen there was considerable evidence to suggest relationship between self-concept and academic achievement. The effects that significant others -parents, peers and teachers- had on a student's self-concept and

motivation for achievement in school was considerable. These influences included emotional relationships between significant others and the child, the attitudes of significant others toward school and school achievement and concern or the interest in the child's performance. In addition, there was the consideration of the importance which students assign to significant others' evaluations of their (the students') ability to do schoolwork (Hamachek, 1973).

Brookover, Thomas, and Paterson (1964) also suggested that positive evaluation of the child, by significant others, was sufficient to lead to enhancement of self and thus to increased achievement. They stated the following:

> Briefly, the general theory states that self-concept is developed through interaction with significant others which in turn influences his behavior. When applied to the specific school learning situation, a relevant aspect of self-concept is the person's conception of his own ability to learn the accepted types of academic behavior; performance in terms of school achievement is the relevant behavior influenced (p. 271).

Investigation of Developmental Programs

Higgins (1972) investigated the effects of parent contact, and teacher in-service training and group counseling versus only group counseling on the self-esteem of selected seventh grade students. The Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory was utilized as a measure of self-esteem. Results indicated no significant increase of self-esteem for students receiving the two different treatments.

The effects of a semistructured group counseling program on self-concept of socio-economically deprived students was studied by Thornton (1976). The subjects consisted of 68 students who were then randomly assigned to one of three major groups. The experimental group met for 45 minutes twice-weekly over a four week period. The attention group (C1) met twice weekly and listened to a storyteller. The third group received no treatment (C2) with these students remaining in their regular classrooms.

Pre- and post-test measures involved the administration of the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale, the Florida Key and the Wide Range Achievement Test. A significant difference was discovered on the Florida Key. Significant differences were found between group E and C2 and between group C1 and C2, with E and C1 being significantly greater than C2.

Comparison of two group counseling treatments, Transactional Analysis and elementary self-defeating behavior, was studied by Barke-Stein (1976) to determine their effect on measures of self-concept. Subjects consisted of 96 fifth and sixth grade students chosen by the teachers as being most likely to benefit from counseling. These subjects were randomly assigned to 12 groups. Four groups were assigned each of the program treatments and 4 groups acted as the control. Results indicated that there was no significant change in self-concept between treatment and control groups.

The purpose of Emmel's (1976) study was to investigate Transactional Analysis (TA) instruction in order to determine if it has a significant effect on the self-concepts of sixth grade students. Subjects consisted of 38 students, 23 of whom were in the experimental group and 15 of whom were in the control group. Results indicated that there was a significant ($p < .05$) difference between the experimental and the control program. The control group obtained higher scores on social-confidence.

Gumaer and Voorneveld (1975) investigated the effect of a developmental program on the self-concept of selected fourth and fifth grade students who were categorized as gifted children. The group of subjects consisted of 10 children, 5 of which composed the experimental group receiving group counseling for relaxation and training in Transactional Analysis. The five members of the control group did not receive the treatment. The experimental program consisted of ten 45-minute sessions. Self-concept and social status increased in a positive direction for the experimental group whereas the students' scores in the control group decreased.

The purpose of Murphy's (1976) study was to determine if decentralized recreational camps have an effect on the self-concept of low socio-economic children. Subjects consisted of 237 children from low socio-economic backgrounds. A control group consisted of 24 children from low socio-economic backgrounds who were unable to attend camp. Pre-

and post-testing involved the administration of the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale and the Draw-A-Person Test. The investigator reported significant positive ($p < .001$) self-concept change in the experimental group.

A study was conducted by Streeter (1977) to determine the effects of a self-enhancing program on the self-concept of upper-middle-class socio-economic second grade students. Students in five different schools were selected for 14 experimental and 11 control classes and involved in a 27 week project. The results indicated that there were no significant differences between the groups.

Forstot (1976) studied the effect of a Primary Prevention Program on the self-concepts of elementary students. The group of subjects consisted of 360 students, 90 treatment subjects and 90 control subjects from kindergarten through third grade, and the same design for fourth through fifth grade. The treatment group consisted of subjects who had participated in the mental health program for one-half to two and one-half years. The control group was selected from a school not receiving the mental health program but similar in academic achievement and socio-economic level. Students in kindergarten through third grade were administered the primary level of the Self-Appraisal Inventory developed by the Instructional Objectives Exchange while the students in the fourth and fifth grade were administered the intermediate level of this instrument. Forstot concluded that the inventory yielded four specific measures of self-

concept and a total measure: (1) self-concept yielded from family interactions, (2) self-concept associated with peer relations, (3) self-concept derived from success or failure at scholastic endeavors, (4) a comprehensive self-concept estimate, and (5) a total self-concept impression. There was no significant change in the subjects' self-concepts as a result of participation in this program.

The purpose of Goldberg's (1976) study was to investigate the effects of classroom mental health sessions on the variables of social acceptance, defensiveness and attitudes of fifth grade students. The subjects consisted of 243 students from two schools. Four classes designated as the experimental group were exposed to a 40-minute weekly mental health session, while the four control session classes were exposed to current event sessions over the same time period. Pre- and post-testing involved the Ohio Social Acceptance Scale, the Defensiveness Scale for Children and the School Attitude Test. Results indicated that the social acceptance scores of the treatment group improved significantly. The experimental group was less defensive and had a more positive attitude.

Kitay (1975) investigated the effect of classroom openness on student behavior and self-concept of the learner. The group of subjects consisted of 1,346 fifth grade students. Subjects were administered the Self-Concept as a Learner Scale (SCAL) and the teachers assessed students using the Devereux Elementary School Behavior Rating Scale

(DESB). The investigator's findings indicated that the correlation between classroom openness and both self-concept as a learner and "Positive Behavior" was inverse and statistically significant ($p < .01$). The investigator concluded that "the results strongly suggested that teachers using the practice of open education to a greater extent are less likely to perceive behaviors among their students considered to interfere with learning" (p. 886).

The effect of the length of the educational environmental exposure and self-concept was studied by West (1976). Subjects consisted of 248 students in first, third and sixth grade from six elementary schools. Pre- and post-testing involved the administration of the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale and the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire. Findings of this investigator indicated that children's self-concepts decreased significantly from grades one through three after the administration of the treatment program.

The purpose of Cheney's (1977) study was to investigate the effects of a developmental program on the self-concept of low self-concept students in the tenth grade. Subjects consisted of 112 students who scored low on the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale as compared to the rest of their classmates. The Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale and the Florida Key were administered as pre- and post-tests. The experimental group received the treatment program while the control group received no treatment. The results

indicated that the experimental group was significantly different ($p < .05$) and higher than the control group in inferred self-concept as measured by the Florida Key.

Halmaker's (1976) study was designed to determine the effects of consistent positive feedback from the teacher on the self-concept of students identified as having a low self-concept. The group of subjects consisted of 61 students from six participating schools who were identified as having a low self-concept. Three classrooms were randomly designated for the treatment. The pre- and post-testing involved the administration of the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory (SEI) and the Coopersmith Behavior Rating Form (BRF). Results indicated that there were no significant ($p < .05$) gains in self-concept as measured by the SEI or BRF.

The relationship between participation by students in a selected elementary art program and self-concept was studied by McGaughey (1976). The group of subjects consisted of 60 students from first grade to sixth grade. The Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale was administered to the subjects. Results indicated that the selected elementary art program was not found to significantly affect the self-concept of enrolled elementary students. No significant differences were found between students with and without elementary art.

The purpose of Cootman's (1976) study was to determine the relationship between the self-concept and dramatic play. The Self-Social Constructs Tasks by Long, Henderson, and Zeller

was administered as a measure of self-concept while Activity 2 of Thinking Creatively in Action and Movement by E. Paul Torrance (1973) was utilized as a measure of dramatic play ability. Findings indicated that dramatic play and self-concept were positively related for the young child (3 - 7 years).

The effect of modern educational drama on the self-concept of disadvantaged fourth, fifth and sixth grade students was investigated by Venson (1977). Subjects included 144 students enrolled in two participating schools. These subjects were equally divided according to grade and school. There were six experimental groups and six control groups which were involved in their school activities. Three of the experimental groups were assigned to an 8-week dance program while three of the experimental groups were assigned to a 16-week dance program. Each group had a control. Pre- and post-testing involved the administration of the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale. The dance classes were held for 25 minutes each day. Results of the study indicate a significant difference in self-concept for subjects in this study. Time did not contribute significantly to difference in self-concept.

Terry (1977) studied the effect of the General Semantics-Language Arts (GSLA) program on the self-concept of a group of third grade students, the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale (PHCSCS) was administered through pre- and post-testing. The group of subjects consisted of 165 students.

The experimental groups were involved in the GSLA program which was led by their classroom teachers three times a week for a period of 10 weeks, while the control groups continued with their regular school activities. A significant positive difference was found between the treatment and control group on the self-concept measure.

The purpose of Koval's (1972) study was to investigate the effect of the DUSO program on the self-concepts of first, second and third grade students. Two schools were involved in this study and within each school one class from each of these grades was randomly assigned to the DUSO program, the other was used as a control with the students in this class continuing with their regular school schedule. The 10-week experimental period involved one 30-minute DUSO session per week. The following four subtests of the California Test of Personality were administered as pre- and post-test measures of self-concept: Self- Reliance, Sense of Personal Worth, Sense of Personal Freedom and Feeling of Belonging. The investigator reported that participants in the DUSO program were significantly more self-reliant and had a greater feeling of belonging that did the non-treatment control group.

Quain (1977) studied the utilization of the DUSO program by teachers who were trained in the use of this program and teachers who were not. From a group of eight volunteer teachers who taught kindergarten, four were selected to be trained to administer the DUSO program and four were not trained but were still part of the experimental program.

The eight teachers were asked to use 40 structured activities from the DUSO program. Children from each of the groups of kindergarten students were randomly selected to be tested. The investigator reported no significant ($p < .05$) difference between the DUSO program and no program as tested by the Wilcox or Matched Pairs Test, nor between the effects of teachers trained to administer this program and those who were not.

Tangeman (1974) investigated the effect of the DUSO program (treatment) and classroom meeting (placebo) upon the self-concept and achievement level of students. The subjects in this study were 193 third-grade students from four classrooms. Four teachers and one researcher participated in this study. One class participated as the treatment group, another as the placebo group and two classes acted as the control group. Pre- and post-testing involved the administration of the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale and the Metropolitan Achievement Test measuring self-concept and achievement, respectively. Findings indicated no significant differences in the scores of students in the DUSO program combined with classroom meeting participants and traditional program control group participants.

The effect of the DUSO program on the self-concept of a selected group of third-grade students was investigated by Terry (1976). The experimental group received activities from the DUSO program twice a week for 40 minutes over a period of two months. The control group received no treatment. Pre- and post-testing involved the administration

of the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory as a measure of self-concept and achievement testing. Results indicated that there were no significant differences in the self-concept and achievement scores of the students in the two groups.

The effect of two guidance programs, Developing Understanding of Self and Others (DUSO) and Focus on Self Development (FOCUS), on the self-concept of selected kindergarten students was investigated by Warner (1978). An original sample of 104 children was administered the Clark's U-Scale as a pre-test. Treatment Group A received bi-weekly DUSO sessions for 25 minutes each time. Treatment Group B received bi-weekly FOCUS sessions for the same time period and the control group participated in playground activities. A population of 94 children was post-tested. Findings indicated significant results for these groups.

The effect of the DUSO program on acquisition of social-emotional concepts and the development of a locus of control orientation was investigated by Stahl (1977). Seven schools in the public school system participated in this study which involved fourth and fifth grade students. The treatment group consisted of 394 students, while 373 students were in the control group. In this post-test only study, the DUSO Affectivity Device and the Children's Nowicki-Structured Internal-External Control Scale (CNS-IE) were administered. Results indicate that there was a significant difference in favour of the control group on the CNS-IE and that there was no significant difference between groups on the DUSO Affectivity Device measures.

The Human Development Program: Magic Circle

The Human Development Program originated from the Human Development Institute in California. The Human Development Program, otherwise known as the Magic Circle, essentially deals with three major themes: (a) awareness (knowing our feelings, thoughts, and actions); (b) mastery (self-confidence); and (c) social interaction (knowing other people) (Palomares & Rubini, 1973). Through the sequential nature of this program, these major themes are dealt with by way of structured activities outlined by the curriculum for kindergarten children through to sixth grade students. Bessell and Palomares (1973) outline the program through a scope and sequence chart which plots the strategies and objectives for each successive level. The Magic Circle does not rely on the use of prompts. Rather, it is a communication system in which members share thoughts and feelings and share their behavior through verbal interaction. An atmosphere of acceptance prevails in the circle sessions during which positive and negative topics relating to emotional and social development are discussed. The authors of the Magic Circle (Palomares, Ball, & Bessell) hold it critical to include negative as well as positive cues so that children will be more prepared to deal with tension and conflict in their daily lives. Members of the circle session are encouraged to share their feelings and to learn to actively listen to one another.

Magic Circle curriculum materials implemented through the process mode of circle sessions are designed to promote the following:

1. positive self-concept,
2. awareness of and respect for self and others,
3. communication and language skills,
4. relationship skills,
5. decision making and problem-solving skills,
6. responsible behavior.

The Magic Circle "is a structured method of developing self-awareness, positive self-concept, and supportive interaction in children using cues and follow-up activities suggested by the curriculum" (Palomares, 1974, p. 20). The circle session consists of the counselor or teacher as a group facilitator and 8 to 10 students who gather for a period of 20-30 minutes per session. The sessions are conducted in a structured environment and there are specific guidelines which must be followed if it is to be a Magic Circle:

1. Everyone gets a turn to respond to the topic,
2. A person can skip his turn if he wants to,
3. Put-downs are not allowed,
4. Time is shared equally,
5. The speaker is listened to,
6. Everyone stays in their own space,
7. No gossip is allowed.

The function of the group facilitator, who is the counselor or teacher, is to begin the circle session by introducing the topic for discussion and to ask members of the group to take turns responding to the topic. After all members have had a turn to share their thoughts and feelings, the leader reviews and summarizes what was learned in the session. The leadership responsibility is gradually shared by the circle members in that each is eventually given the responsibility of leader.

Communication skills are modelled by the leader. Such techniques as active listening, focusing on feelings, giving recognition, paraphrasing, reviewing, focusing on similarities and differences, involving everyone and transferring leadership are essential to the effectiveness of the program. Palomares (1974) stated the following:

> The (Magic Circle)...with small groups in the classroom, is a preventive model to help individuals to get in touch with their own feelings and to communicate effectively with others. Active and reflective listening skills are learned by the student in the Circle. Repeating and paraphrasing another's feelings, comparing similarities and differences, and reviewing new awarenesses, all help children to feel listened to, accepted, and validated. Unfortunately these feelings do not evolve naturally in everyday life. They emerge when people practice communication skills, and the (Magic Circle)...is a model which meets this urgent need (p. 21).

In 1977, a research paper was prepared by the Human Development Training Institute for the purpose of reviewing research articles describing studies which involved the

implementation of the Human Development Program: Magic Circle at the elementary school level. Of the thirty-five independent research studies reviewed, twelve investigations measured the effects of the Magic Circle on student self-concept. The results of these studies were mixed. Six investigators reported significant positive effects (Bozym, 1976; Doll, 1975; Kinghorn, 1976; Mestler, 1974; Mosser & Evans, 1973; Zubowicz & Simpson, 1977). Six investigators reported no significant effects (Day, 1977; Hawkinson, 1970; Isaacson, 1976; Jackson, 1973; Lancaster, 1976; Nogid, 1972). No clear direction or trend was indicated from the rather limited number of research studies pertaining to the effects of the Magic Circle on self-concept of elementary school children. The validation research was very limited on the Magic Circle.

Investigation of the Human Development Program: Magic Circle

An investigation into the effects of the Human Development Program: Magic Circle (MC) was conducted by Mosser and Evans (1973). The subjects consisted of 142 fifth-grade students who scored below the 30th percentile on the Metropolitan Achievement Test for reading and mathematics. The sample was randomly divided into three groups: Group 1 (experimental) was involved in 20 minutes of Magic Circle, 4 days per week for a period of 13 weeks; Group 2 (experimental) was involved in 20 minutes of Magic Circle two days per week for 25 weeks; and Group 3 experienced no Magic Circle

sessions. The Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory was administered as a pre- and post-test. The results indicated that Group 2 significantly ($p<.05$) exceeded Group 1 and ($p<.01$) Group 3. In conclusion, it may be generalized that the effect of the Magic Circle on self-esteem is dependent upon the circle session duration over a period of time rather than a concentration of the circle sessions conducted over a shorter period of time.

The effects of the Magic Circle on a selected group of students was studied by Doll (1975). There were 707 second through seventh grade students and 30 teachers involved in this study. The teachers participated in a 5 day Magic Circle workshop prior to the treatment program. The frequency of exposure of the students in the experimental group to the Magic Circle program varied from twice weekly, to daily, to twice daily for approximately one school year. The control groups did not participate in the Magic Circle program. Self-concept was measured by the administration of the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale and the HDP Development Profiles. No significant difference was found between the experimental and control groups. However, frequency of the Magic Circle sessions was a significant factor affecting Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale scores. The more frequent the sessions, the higher the scores. The combined Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale and HDP Developmental Profile scores were highly significant. The school personnel that were involved in this study were reported to have shown

positive attitudes toward the Magic Circle in terms of the effect this program had on the students.

Relationship between self-concept and the Magic Circle program was studied by Lancaster (1976). This investigator sought to study the relationship between third grade students' self-concept scores on the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale, ratings of their teacher on the My Teacher Scale, scores on the HDP Developmental Profile and socio-economic background. All the third grade students in one school participated in the study with two classrooms of students randomly selected as the control group and the other two classes assigned to the experimental group. The experimental group participated in the Magic Circle for 7 months with a teacher minimally trained in the administration of the Magic Circle program. The results indicated generalized gains in experimental students on ratings by teachers on the HDP Development Profile. No significant relationships between studied variables were revealed other than interactions relating to academic ability, classroom behavior and parents' employment.

The relationship between self-concept and participation in the Magic Circle program was studied by Isaacson (1976). The group of subjects consisted of kindergarten, first, second, third and fifth grade students attending a school in a low socio-economic district. Teachers trained in the administration of the Magic Circle program carried out daily Magic Circle sessions with the experimental group while the

control group did not experience the Magic Circle program. The Primary Self-Concept Inventory was utilized to measure self-concept. However, no significant relationship between self-concept and the Magic Circle was found. Despite these results, Isaacson concluded, "based on observations and additional feedback, however, it is recommended that the Human Development Program continue to be used" (p. 808).

The effect of the Magic Circle on the self-concept of Mexican-American students was investigated by Kinghorn (1976). Subjects consisted of 339 kindergarten through third grade students from three schools. The Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory (MTA) indicated that all the teachers involved in the study had similar attitudes about the Magic Circle prior to being trained to administer the program. The experimental group experienced the Magic Circle program for a period of 6 months, while the control group did not experience the program. On a pre- and post-test basis the subjects were administered the Pictorial Self-Concept Scale (PSC). Significant positive self-concept development was found in the kindergarten and first grade students as compared to the control group. No significant positive self-concept development was found in the second and third grade experimental group as compared with the control group.

The effects of the Magic Circle program on the self-concepts and classroom behavior of a selected group of emotionally disturbed children was studied by Zubowicz and Simpson (1977). From the total sample of seven 11 to 13-

year-old students, four students were selected as the experimental group to participate in the Magic Circle bi-weekly sessions for period of 6 weeks, while the three students in the control group participated in art sessions. All students continued with their psychotherapy sessions during the time of the study. The Behavioral Q Sort was administered in addition to the Quay Peterson Modified Behavior Problem Checklist and a formal observation technique used to record teachers' perceptions of students' daily behaviors. Significant positive increases in self-concept and attending behavior of the experimental group were reported. The control group experienced significant positive changes in self-concept, reported distractibility, peer interaction, anxiety in the classroom, and residential unit behavior. There was significant decrease in classroom attending behavior and assignment completion behavior in control subjects.

In another study investigating the effects of the Magic Circle on self-concept, McMurry (1977) studied 155 rural students in the third, fourth and fifth grade. The Awareness Scale and the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale were administered to measure self-concept at the time of pre-testing, after 6 weeks and again after 12 weeks of the experiment. No significant ($p < .05$) effects were found on the self-concept measures. McMurry noted a relationship between the content of a behavioral episode and the accompanying effect. He concluded that "affective education

would therefore need to focus on content understanding as much as (and prior to) focus on understanding of affect" (p. 267a).

In an investigation conducted by Slauson (1976), the effects of the Magic Circle on positive self-concept in first and second grade children, as related to the teachers' characteristics, was of primary concern. A group of 75 subjects experienced the Magic Circle, while the 35 subjects in the control group experienced the regular school curriculum. All subjects were pre- and post-tested by the administration of the Thomas Self-Concept Values Test (TSCVT). Results indicated that experimental subjects were not significantly ($p<.05$) different in self-concept from control subjects.

Thompson (1974) compared the effect of two different programs on the self-concepts of sixth grade students. Subjects consisted of 32 students randomly divided into four groups of 8. Students were assigned to 12 weekly sessions of: Magic Circle, developmental group counseling, career awareness (placebo) group, or a control group. Three measures of self-concept were utilized at the end of the 12 week period; students completed the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale and teachers rated the students on the Personality Rating Scale and the Rating Scale for Pupil Adjustment. Thompson found that the developmental group counseling and the Magic Circle had no significantly ($p<.05$) different effects on self-concept. The two experimental groups resulted in a

positive significant effect on self-concept and the placebo group showed a positive effect in relation to the control group. Thompson concluded that the positive direction of the two experimental treatment groups "suggested that a longer treatment period might produce significant results" (p. 3894).

The purpose of Day's (1977) study was to investigate the effects of the Magic Circle on selected affective, cognitive and confluent variables. The subjects consisted of the intact second, fourth and sixth grade population of two schools. The teachers of the experimental subjects participated in a three-day in-service program on the administration of Magic Circle. The experimental school was involved in Magic Circle daily throughout the school year. The control school was involved in their regular school curriculum and activities. All subjects were pre- and post-tested with appropriate levels of the Self-Observation Scales, Intellectual Achievement Responsibility Scale and the California Achievement Test. From the non-significant results of this investigation, Day concluded that "in general the "MC" was not demonstrated to have produced a positive impact upon program participants for the particular criteria" (p. 125).

Summary

Self-concept is multidimensional, therefore complex and difficult to measure. Self-concept seems to be related to several dimensions of the individual's experience.

The child perceives himself as "good" or "bad" depending upon the reflection of himself through the reactions of significant others. From his experiences, he learns about himself through the mirror represented by the actions of others toward him. His earliest experiences and identification occur through relationships with his parents and siblings. As he grows older his capacities for identification normally become much broader so that they include peers and teachers (Combs & Snygg, 1959). In his earliest years, the child's self-concept is usually the result of his home experience. However, the older he gets, the broader become the sphere of relationships in which he moves as he interacts with various significant others. His self-concept becomes defined with respect to his experience in these groups. Since the self-concept is the function of experience, what happens to students during their time spent in the educational system must be of vital importance to the development of the child. Probably no other agency in our society outside the family has a more profound effect on the development of the self-concept (Combs & Snygg, 1959).

The child's self-concept arises and develops in interpersonal settings. Feelings the child has about himself are established early in life and are modified by subsequent experiences. Among the significant people believed to affect feelings the child has about himself are first, his parents, and later, his peers and teachers (Davidson & Lang, 1960).

Several researchers have investigated the significance of the expectations and attitudes of the teacher toward students. Rosenthal and Jacobson (1968) and Beez (1967) suggested that a teacher's predisposition to the success of failure of his or her students influences the student's performance (Retish, 1973). This phenomenon has become known as the self-fulfilling prophecy or the Pygmalion effect. Several researchers have placed an emphasis on understanding the relationship between social achievement and self-concept. Studies by Brookover et al. (1964), Combs (1962) and Wylie (1961) represent such attempts to explain this relationship (Brookover, Thomas, & Paterson, 1964). Trowbridge (1972) stated that "the teacher with a high self-concept somehow transfers this self-concept to his students and thereby generates in them a feeling of greater self-worth" (p. 65). This is conveyed simply through the teacher's behavior. A child's academic success is certainly not determined by any one variable. Intellectual ability is one determinant and self-concept seems to be another major determinant (Williams & Cole, 1968).

> the child's self-image is dependent on...a sense of security, the degree to which the child feels loved by his or her parents, the extent to which he or she feels valued by teachers and other significant adults, and his or her position with a peer group (Eldridge, Witmer, Barcikowski, & Bauer, 1977, p. 185).

The teacher must realize that the student's life at school and his relationships with his teachers and his peers

have a profound psychological impact on this self-concept. The school is second only to the home as a place where the social forces which influence a child's attitudes toward himself and others are developed (Jersild, 1952).

> Each person's self is something individual, yet it has a social origin. This fact has important meaning for education because many of the strongest social influences are brought to bear upon the child by way of his experiences at school. (Jersild, 1652, p. 11).

The Human Development Program: Magic Circle is a curriculum for preventive mental health which stresses the development of self-awareness and positive self-concept in children. This affective development program is one of several such programs which have been implemented at the elementary school level. The Magic Circle is a structured method of developing self-awareness and positive self-concept in children and supportive interaction among children using activities suggested by a curriculum which is divided into 6 week units. The sequential nature of this program allows the major themes of awareness, mastery and social interaction to develop in scope through the grade levels, from kindergarten to the sixth grade. Bessell and Palomares (1973) stated the following of the Magic Circle:

> It is a carefully articulated communications process which encourages spontaneous individual expression. In the classroom circle session, the students...share their feelings and thoughts, and discuss their behavior... through verbal group interaction in activities (or sessions) related to emotional and social development throughout the twenty to thirty minute sessions, an

> atmosphere of acceptance prevails. Students are encouraged to share their feelings genuinely and to listen and give attention to each other (p. 5).

The Magic Circle involves the total child in affective and intellectual development. The Magic Circle is experiential, with the child exploring his total self.

Many developments have occurred in the field of guidance. Perhaps the most significant occurrence is the acceptance that affective development in the elementary school is basic to fulfilling the goal of education which is the development of the whole person, affective and cognitive. Unlike the remedial guidance program that services only a limited number of individuals, the entire student population can be involved in the developmental approach. This assertion has caused schools to reexamine their guidance service and develop a new developmental approach with a group orientation (Bedrosian, Sara, & Pearlman, 1970). A growing body of literature indicates that developmental growth makes it desirable for guidance to be introduced at each grade level beginning at the kindergarten level (Wilson, 1950).

Current trends in the evolving role of elementary school counseling involve the provision of developmental guidance service and includes a major emphasis on counsultation with teachers and students.

Consistent with this trend are affective development programs which structure activities and material to provide students with experiences related to the acquisition of appropriate behavior for personal and social growth (Haplin,

Haplin, & Hartley, 1972). Guidance programs have been proposed in response to the increased awareness of the need for human development programs (Anderson & Henne, 1972; Bessell & Palomares, 1970; Dinkmeyer, 1978; Randolph & Howe, 1966).

The Magic Circle is commonly utilized as a guidance program in elementary schools. This is a preventive mental health program utilizing structured activities. The three thematic areas of self-awareness, mastery and social interaction evolve over the different grade levels from kindergarten through grade six. A major objective of the program is to improve the self-concept of children and this objective is behaviorally outlined through the use of structured activities and curriculum.

There is a tendency for educators to enthusiastically implement new curriculum before they have been thoroughly tested or validated. No clear direction or trend has been indicated by the limited research which has investigated the effect of the Magic Circle on the self-concept. The Magic Circle has almost no validation research and until the validity of this program is established, its beneficial effect should be seriously questioned.

School time is valuable to staff and students alike. The expenditure of time on staff in-service training and the actual implementation of the Magic Circle is of serious concern. A secondary consideration is monetary expenditure, with booklets for each grade level priced at $8.50 plus

the additional expense of the theory manual. The evaluation of the Magic Circle and its effect on the self-concept appears to lack sufficient investigation and validation.

CHAPTER III

Design and Methodology

The Sample

The sample in this study consisted of 51 fourth and fifth grade students who attended a public school in Edmonton, Alberta. There was a total of 26 girls and 25 boys in the sample population. The study sample was comprised of children from similar socio-economic backgrounds. Two classes of students within the same school participated in this study. Class 1 consisted of a split grade four/five of high achievers. Class 2 consisted of fifth grade students. For purposes of this study, each class was treated as a separate entity. Each class of students was randomly subdivided into three groups: Magic Circle (treatment) group, Expressive Arts (placebo) group and Independent Reading (control) group. These groups met bi-weekly over a 10-week period. Each group session was 30 minutes in length.

The Procedure

The three leaders involved in this study had been trained through the Graduate level Counseling Practicium offered in the Department of Educational Psychology, University of Alberta, Edmonton. All three group leaders had been trained to lead Magic Circle sessions.

One leader met with the two Magic Circle (treatment) groups for the 10-week period. Since the Magic Circle is comprised of three thematic areas, each of these three thematic areas was the topic of the circle session for 6 consecutive sessions.

A second leader met with the Expressive Arts (placebo) groups during the 10-week period. The Expressive Arts sessions focused on a variety of creative activities such as puppetry, drama, story-writing and art work.

The researcher led the two Independent Reading (control) groups during the 10-week period. The Independent Reading sessions involved silent reading and listening to recordings of popular fairy tales. Reports were written, by the group members, based on their reading and listening selections.

(a) The Piers-Harris Self-Concept Scale

The Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale (Appendix A) was utilized as a measure of self-concept. This self-report general self-concept scale was developed by Piers and Harris (1969). The Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale is an 80 item instrument consisting of forced-choice "YES-NO" responses. The items are worded in such a way that approximately half indicate a positive self-concept and the remainder indicate a negative self-concept. This format was implemented to reduce response set bias. Although the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale was designed to measure general self-concept, there are 6 item clusters or factors presented by Piers and Harris (1969): statements of behavior, intellectual and school status, physical appearance and attributes, anxiety, popularity, and happiness and satisfaction. At the elementary school level two factors of self-deprecation (abasement) and anxiety were evident.

The Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale was standardized on a sample of 1,183 children in grades four through twelve. The internal consistency of the scale ranged from .78 to .93 and retest reliability ranged from .71 to .77. Correlation with similar general self-concept instruments indicated teacher and peer validity coefficients of .40. This scale has sufficient reliability and validity to be used extensively in research (Bentler, 1970). The Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale has been utilized as a measure of self-concept in several studies (Cenname, 1977; Clark, 1976; Doll, 1975; Eldridge, Barcikowski, & Witmer, 1973; Eldridge, Witmer, Barcikowski, & Bauer, 1977; Fredman, 1976; Isaacson, 1976; Johnson, 1977; Lancaster, 1976; Shreve, 1973; Tangeman, 1974; Zeitz, 1975).

Shreve (1973) conducted a critical analysis of the following four self-concept instruments: The Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale, the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale, The Thomas Self-Concept Values Test and the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory. He assessed these instruments in terms of the Standards for Educational and Psychological Tests and Manuals (1966), published by the American Psychological Association. Shreve noted that the four instruments examined were deficient in the area of criterion-related validity. None of the instruments had alternate forms for pre- and post-test assessments. However, Shreve concluded that the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale was the superior instrument of those he assessed.

Michael, Smith, and Michael (1975) factor analyzed responses of 299 elementary, 302 junior high and 300 senior high students. The factors in the emotional domain were not the same claimed by Piers and Harris (1969). These researchers suggested that certain items were open to subjective interpretation to such an extent that the intent of the questions were vague. Michael, Smith, and Michael suggested that the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale be revised to correct this lack of clarity.

(b) Student's Perception Of Ability Scale

Boersma and Chapman's (1977) Student's Perception of Ability Scale (Appendix B) was utilized as a measure of self-report academic self-concept in the following manner:

> The term self-perception of ability was used to reflect "academic self-concept" and refers to the individual's manner of describing and distinguishing himself as unique among others in terms of interaction and performance on academic school tasks. This self-concept of ability results from the perceptions of the evaluations that significant others hold of the individual's ability (Brookover et al., (1965), in conjunction with amount of success experienced on academic tasks (Boersma, Chapman, & Maguire, 1978a, p. 4).

Boersma, Chapman, and Maguire (1978a) indicated the need for such an instrument as the Student's Perception of Ability Scale to measure achievement self-concept. They stated that "the SPAS was developed in response to a need for a reliable and valid instrument to measure academic, rather than general, self-concept in elementary school children in Grades 3 to 6" (p. 16).

The Student's Perception of Ability Scale consists of 70 self-report items which are answered through forced-choice "YES-NO" responses. This scale consists of six

subscales which include: Perception of General Ability (General ability), Perception of Arithmetic Ability (Arithmetic), General School Satisfaction (School Satisfaction), Perception of Reading and Spelling Ability (Reading/Spelling), Perception of Penmanship and Neatness (Penmanship/Neatness) and Confidence in Academic Ability (Confidence).

Boersma, Chapman, and Maguire (1978a) stated the following about the Student's Perception of Ability Scale:

> This scale has six meaningful factors which relate to perceptions of ability in specific school subjects, and to more general school attitudes. In terms of reliability, the SPAS has good internal consistency and stability, thus suggesting that the scale is a dependable instrument with strong internal validity. Normative data were obtained on a sample of 642 children in Grades 3 to 6. While there were no grade level effects, girls tend to score higher on the SPAS than boys (p. 16).

The Student's Perception of Ability Scale was developed through a series of four studies. A sample of 319 third grade children from five schools were used for data collection to determine the factor structure of the Student's Perception of Ability Scale. A second study involved 642 students in third, fourth and fifth grade at two schools whose response scores were utilized for full and subscale intercorrelations, normative statistics, and estimates of discriminant validity between the Student's Perception of Ability Scale and the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale (Piers & Harris, 1969), a measure of general self-concept. A third study involved the identification of 81 control children from the second study sample. The purpose of this study was to investigate individual

differences between these groups in terms of self-perceptions and mother's perceptions of the child's abilities. The fourth study investigated the relationship between report-card grades and the Student's Perception of Ability Scale scores, full and subscale, for a sample of 642 students in the original study. The Student's Perception of Ability Scale was found to moderately (r=.49) predict grade-point average (Boersma, Chapman, & Maguire, 1978a).

Boersma, Chapman, and Maguire (1978a) compared the Student's Perception of Ability Scale with the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale and concluded that the Student's Perception of Ability Scale measures achievement self-concept which is different from general self-concept as measured by the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale:

> Discriminant validity was estimated from correlations between the SPAS and the Piers-Harris test of general self-concept. Negligible correlation between the two scales and subscales suggest that the SPAS is tapping something quite different from general self-concept. Furthermore, these findings are supportive of the other researchers' calls for instruments which "measure more molecular" facets of self-concept (eg., Brookover et al., 1965, 1967; Shavelson, Huber, & Stanton, 1976; Wylie, 1961, 1974) (p. 16).

(c) Behavior Rating Form

Coopersmith's Behavior Rating Form (Appendix C) was utilized as an external behavioral evaluation of changes in self-concept. Coopersmith (1975) designed the Behavior Rating Form to provide an objective measure of the behavioral expression of self-concept.

The 13 items of the Behavior Rating Form are divided into two parts. The first 10 items of this form provide an appraisal of behaviors that are associated with poise, assurance and self-trust. Reactions to new situations and failure reactions to criticism; and self-deprecation and hesitation to express opinions publicly are measured by these 10 items. The second part consisting of 3 items provides an index of behaviors that are frequently defensive in nature such as bragging, domination or bullying and attention seeking.

A five point scale is utilized to measure each behavior. To minimize superficial response bias, the rating which is indicative of high self-concept behavior has been varied in position from right to left. With a maximum score of five on each item, the maximum total is 50 for the first part. In order to provide a convenient base, the total score is multiplied by two. On the second part the maximum score is 15, and scores of 10 or more are indicative of greater defensiveness.

Although self-concept is generally assumed to be a major factor in determining behavior, there has been relatively little research directed towards clarifying its significance and dynamics. The purpose of Coopersmith's (1959) study was to develop measures capable of distinguishing between subjects high and low in self-concept and between subjects exhibiting reality-based and defensive responses. The subjects consisted of 102 fifth- and sixth-

grade children in public schools. The teacher and principal of the children involved in this study were asked to rate each child on behavior believed to be related to self-concept. The behavior to be rated was selected after: observing the behavior of children in and out of the classroom, interviews with clinical psychologists, teachers and principals and evaluations and discussion with a research committee.

The correlation between the evaluation by the teacher and the principal's, independent rating was .73. The teachers' ratings ranged from 23-100 with a mean of 48.4 and a standard deviation of 15.4. The mean rating for boys was 68.4 and the standard deviation was 16.2 The mean for the girls was significantly higher than the boys ($t=4.2$; $p<.001$).

(d) Kinetic Family Drawings

Burns and Kaufman's (1970) Kinetic Family Drawings (Appendix D) was utilized as an evaluation of family self-concept. The child is handed an 11" by 8 1/2" piece of plain white paper and a pencil is placed in the center of the paper, then the following instructions are given:

> Draw a picture of everyone in your family, including you, doing something. Try to draw whole people, not cartoons or stick people. Remember, make everyone doing something - some kind of action. (Burns & Kaufman, 1970).

The examiner leaves the room where the child is drawing and periodically checks back. The child indicates

verbally or by gesture that he is finished since there is no time limit. If the child is having difficulty and indicates that he cannot draw, the examiner encourages the child periodically.

The kinetic approach or asking the child to produce a drawing involving moving or action figures has been found to produce valuable and dynamic material in attempting to understand children in the family setting. Young children usually express themselves more naturally and spontaneously through activity rather than through words. Thus, drawing figures provides an appropriate method of exploring the world of the child. Drawing tests are easily administered, nonthreatening and can be employed where other techniques are limited by such factors as language barriers, cultural deprivation and inability to communicate (Burns & Kaufman, 1970).

The Kinetic Family Drawings interpretation is analytical in nature and relies heavily on Freudian interpretation. The following are some characteristics of the Kinetic Family Drawings and their interpreted meaning as indicated by Burns and Kaufman (1970):

A. Styles:

1. Compartmentalization

   Children attempt to isolate family members through compartmentalizing.

2. Underlining:

   Underlining at the bottom of the page is characteristic of children from unstable families.

B. Actions:

1. Mother:

a. Cooking: This is the most common action of mothers in the Kinetic Family Drawings and reflects a mother figure who meets the child's nurturant needs.

b. Cleaning: This action is found in compulsive mothers who are preoccupied with the house rather than the members of the family. Cleaning becomes equated with acceptable or good behavior.

c. Ironing: Commonly found in overly involved mothers trying too hard to give her child "warmth".

2. Fathers:

a. Household activities: Reading the paper, keeping the household budget, playing with the children are common activities of nurturing fathers.

b. Driving to or at work: Commonly found in fathers who are thought of in terms of being absent or being more involved in activities outside the home.

3. Rivalry:

Usually depicted as forceful action among members of the family and commonly portrayed by highly competitive or "jealous" children.

Hulse (1951) discussed common signs of conflict within the family when interpreting family drawings. He

(1952) has utilized the Family Drawing Test for expression by emotionally disturbed children.

(e) How I Feel About Other In My Class

The How I Feel About Others In My Class sociogram (Appendix E) was utilized as a measure of self-concept through peer evaluation. Each student was asked to list the three students in his class whom he liked the most. Next the student was asked to list the three students in his class whom he liked the least. Thus students' choices of classmates were made on a choice-rejection basis.

The directions were as follows for the How I Feel About Others In My Class sociogram:

> Everyone has different feelings about everyone else. We like some people a lot, some a little bit, and some not at all. Sometimes we think it is not proper or polite to dislike other people, but when we are really honest about it we know that everyone has some negative feelings about some of the people he knows. There are some people you like a lot and some you don't like. There are some people who like you a lot and some who don't like you at all. If (I know)... the way you feel about other members of your class, (I have a better idea of groups within your classroom).... There are no right or wrong answers (p. 1).

Concerning the validity of sociometric testing, Jennings (1950) stated that in most psychological tests an attempt is made to correlate the test with some criteria, but with sociometric tests the behavior being studied is actually sampled. In this case the predictor is the same as the criterion. Criswell (1949) suggested that the sociogram test has "immediate validity" in that it can serve as a basis of immediate action.

Critical to the validity of sociometric tests is the manner in which students' responses are obtained. Bonney and Fessenden (1955) pointed out that when a student gives honest and sincere responses to sociometric questions, it may be said that these responses have "face validity". The problem in face validity lies in the assumption that respondents are truthful (Pepinsky, 1949).

With the use of this type of sociogram as a pre- and post-test measure, changes in both the choice status and rejection status of subject may be dtermined (Haplin, Haplin, & Hartley, 1972).

Moreno (1953) attempted to secure valid responses to sociometric measures by developing the following six criteria:

1. Limit choices and rejections to members of the group,
2. Allow subjects to make as many choices and rejections as they wish,
3. Provide definite criteria upon which to base choices and rejections,
4. Restructure the group on the basis of the sociometric data,
5. Allow all subjects to make their choices in privacy,
6. Present questions in an understandable manner to the subjects.

The How I Feel About Others In My Class sociogram meets four of the six criteria suggested by Moreno as increasing the

validity of the sociometric measure. The second and fourth criteria were not met.

The use of a sociometric instrument similar to the How I Feel About Others In My Class sociogram was implemented by Coopersmith (1959) as a measure of self-concept:

> The children in the four classes under study were asked to indicate which three children in their class they would most like to have as a friend. This information was compiled as the total number of times each child was chosen by his classmates. The measure was included on the assumption that the friendships and status of the child among his peers were related to his self-esteem (p. 89)

Hypotheses

Due to limited research, no significant directionality has been indicated in the effects of the Magic Circle on the self-concepts of children. Therefore, the null hypotheses are being stated with regard to the effects of the treatment on each of the measurements being used:

1. There will be no significant difference among the Magic Circle (treatment) group, Expressive Arts (placebo) group and the Independent Reading (control) group in terms of pre- and post-test achievement self-concept scores by self-report as measured by the Student's Perception of Ability Scale.
2. There will be no significant difference among the Magic Circle (treatment) group, Expressive Arts (placebo) group and the Independent Reading (control) group in terms of pre- and post-test external behavioral evaluation of students' self-concepts rated by teachers on the Behavior Rating Form.

3. There will be no significant difference among the Magic Circle (treatment) group, Expressive Arts (placebo) group and the Independent Reading (control) group in terms of pre- and post-test self-concept rating of children by an independent researcher on the Kinetic Family Drawings.
4. There will be no significant difference among the Magic Circle (treatment) group, Expressive Arts (placebo) group and the Independent Reading (control) group in terms of pre- and post-test rating of children by peers on a sociogram entitled How I Feel About Others In My Class.
5. There will be no significant difference among the Magic Circle (treatment) group, Expressive Arts (placebo) group and the Independent Reading (control) group in terms of pre- and post-test general self-concept scores by self-report as measured by the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale.

Administration of the Instruments

All five instruments were administered to the participants at the beginning of the school year. The same instruments were readministered 11 weeks later, after the treatment had been discontinued. All the instruments except for the Behavior Rating Form were orally administered to each of the three classes of students. The Behavior Rating Form was completed by the subject's homeroom teacher.

Analysis of the Data

To test the hypotheses, the data were analyzed, a two-way analysis (Winer, 1971) was used to test for Groups and Time factor effects within and between the Magic Circle (treatment) group, Expressive Arts (placebo) group and Independent Reading (control) group on each of the five instruments.

Preliminary data analysis involved a one-way analysis of variance to compare differences among the treatment, placebo and control groups on the pre-test. A one-way analysis of variance was also utilized to discover if there was a classroom effect as indicated by the pre-tests. A three-way analysis of variance was used to compare the pre- and post-test scores for males and females in the treatment, placebo and control groups. In the event that sex is not a significant factor, the sex factor will be collapsed and a two-factor analysis will be utilized in order to compare pre- and post-test scores among groups on the factors of Groups and Time.

CHAPTER IV

Results

Introduction

The statistical results of the data collected from the group mean scores were compiled in this Chapter. These results were representative of a sample population of 51 fourth and fifth grade students from a public school in Edmonton, Alberta. Originally, a sample population of 77 subjects were selected to participate in this study. However, the data collected for one classroom of 26 students was eliminated from the data pool since the entire classroom of students was exposed to the Magic Circle (treatment) by the classroom teacher.

Preliminary Findings

In order to compare the pre-test mean scores of the Magic Circle (treatment) group, the Expressive Arts (placebo) group and the Independent Reading (control) group, a one-way analysis of variance was performed for each of the five measurements. The results were reported in Table 1.

Table 1

Analysis of Variance on Pre-test Scores

for Each of the Five Instruments

Test	Source	df	M.S.	F
1	Between groups	2	11.09	0.07
	Within groups	48	168.79	
2	Between groups	2	129.59	1.56
	Within groups	48	83.03	
3	Between groups	2	11.84	0.03
	Within groups	48	370.42	
4	Between groups	2	976.29	0.62
	Within groups	48	1569.29	
5	Between groups	2	380.63	4.30*
	Within groups	48	88.62	

1 Student's Perception of Ability Scale
2 Behavior Rating Form
3 Kinetic Family Drawings
4 How I Feel About Others In My Class sociogram
5 The Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale

* $p < .05$

Table 1 illustrated that on four of the five instrument measurements there were no significant difference among the treatment, placebo and control groups' mean scores. The non significant F-values on the Student's Perception of Ability Scale, Behavior Rating Form, Kinetic Family Drawings and the How I Feel About Others In My Class sociogram indicated that the three groups' pre-test mean scores were comparable with regards to variance.

A three-way analysis of variance on the factors of Sex, Time and Groups was performed on the mean scores of the treatment, placebo and control groups for each of the five instruments (Appendix F). The findings of the three-way analysis of variance indicated that the sex factor had no significant effect on the mean scores of the following four instruments: Student's Perception of Ability Scale, Behavior Rating Form, Kinetic Family Drawings and How I Feel About Others In My Class sociogram. The findings of the three-way analysis of variance on the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale scores indicated a significant ($F=5.85$, $p < .01$) Groups x Sex x Time interaction effect which was due to a summation of treatment, placebo and control group mean scores with unequal variance.

The data analysis, collapsed by sex, focused on Time x Group factors utilizing a two-way analysis of variance with repeated measures.

Findings of the Study

In the null hypotheses, it was stated that there would be no significant difference among the Magic Circle (treatment) group, Expressive Arts (placebo) group and Independent Reading (control) group in terms of pre- and post-test scores on the following self-concept measurements:

1. Self-report scores as measured by the Student's Perception of Ability Scale,
2. Evaluation of students, by teachers, on the Behavior Rating Form,
3. Evaluation of students, by a psychologist, on the Kinetic Family Drawings,

4. Rating of students, by peers, on a sociogram entitled How I Feel About Others In My Class sociogram,
5. Self-report scores as measured by the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale.

To test the null hypotheses, a two-way analysis of variance was performed on the data collected for four of the five instruments. A comparison of the treatment, placebo and control groups' mean scores on pre- and post-tests were reported in Table 2 through 5. An analysis of covariance of the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale on post-test adjusted means was reported in Table 6.

Table 2

Analysis of Variance - Groups x Time - on the Student's Perception of Ability Scale

Source	df	M.S.	F
Between	50		
Groups	2	208.60	0.60
Error	48	348.11	
Within	51		
Time	1	14.91	0.48
Groups x Time	2	87.22	2.78
Error	48	31.34	

Table 3 showed that there was no significant difference among the treatment, placebo and control groups' mean

scores as measured by the Student's Perception of Ability Scale. Neither, the Time effect nor the Groups x Time interaction was statistically significant. Therefore, Hypothesis 1 was accepted.

Table 3

Analysis of Variance - Groups x Time - on the Behavior Rating Form

Source	df	M.S.	F
Between	50		
Groups	2	244.97	1.38
Error	48	177.32	
Within	51		
Time	1	678.23	26.04**
Groups x Time	2	3.51	0.14
Error	48		

* $p < .05$
** $p < .01$

Table 3 indicated that there was no significant difference among the treatment, placebo and control groups' mean scores as measured by the Behavior Rating Form. Neither was the Groups x Time interaction effect statistically significant. However, there was a statistically significant ($F=26.04$, $p < .01$) Time effect. This Time effect was a summation effect due to increases in post-test over pre-test scores across groups. Consequently, there was no significant difference found among treatment, placebo and control groups

in terms of pre- and post-test mean scores on the Groups x Time interaction effect. Therefore, Hypothesis 2 was accepted.

Table 4

Analysis of Variance - Groups x Time - on the Kinetic Family Drawings

Source	df	M.S.	F
Between	50		
Groups	2	84.54	0.14
Error	48	596.68	
Within	51		
Time	1	0.73	0.00
Groups x Time	2	148.84	0.08
Error	48	218.71	

Table 4 indicated that there was no significant difference among the treatment, placebo and control groups' mean scores in terms of the Kinetic Family Drawings. Neither, the Time effect nor the Groups x Time interaction effect was statistically significant. Therefore, Hypothesis 3 was accepted.

Table 5

Analysis of Variance - Groups x Time -

on the How I Feel About Others In My Class sociogram

Source	df	M.S.	F
Between	50		
Groups	2	7.29	0.27
Error	48	27.05	
Within	51		
Time	1	4.31	0.96
Groups x Time	2	8.12	1.81
Error	48	4.49	

Table 5 illustrated that there was no significant difference among the treatment, placebo and control groups' mean scores in terms of the How I Feel About Others In My Class sociogram. Neither, the Time effect nor the Groups x Time interaction effect was statistically significant. Therefore, Hypothesis 4 was accepted.

Table 6

Analysis of Covariance of the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale on Post-test Scores Employing Adjusted Means

Source	df	M.S.	F
Between Groups	2	19.05	0.39
Within Groups	47	48.54	

Table 6 showed that there was no significant difference among the treatment, placebo and control groups' scores in terms of adjusted post-test means on the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale. Therefore, Hypothesis 5 was accepted.

Means of both the pre- and post-test administration of the following four instruments were presented in Table 7: Student's Perception of Ability Scale, Behavior Rating Form, Kinetic Family Drawings and the How I Feel About Others In My Class sociogram. Also, the means and adjusted means for the treatment, placebo and control groups on the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale were presented in the following Table.

Table 7

Means and Adjusted Means of the Five Instrument Pre- and Post-test Scores for the Three Groups Employed in the Study

Test	Groups	Pre-test Means	Post-test Means	Adjusted Means
1	Treatment	48.28	46.00	
	Placebo	49.65	53.76	
	Control	50.88	51.31	
2	Treatment	75.44	80.67	
	Placebo	70.24	76.00	
	Control	71.50	76.00	
3	Treatment	47.78	52.22	
	Placebo	49.41	48.24	
	Control	48.75	45.00	
4	Treatment	49.72	50.89	
	Placebo	50.65	49.94	
	Control	49.13	49.88	
5	Treatment	121.90	123.10	132.00
	Placebo	124.60	127.20	135.65
	Control	127.30	127.90	135.65

1 Student's Perception of Ability Scale
2 Behavior Rating Form
3 Kinetic Family Drawings
4 How I Feel About Others In My Class sociogram
5 The Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale

Table 7 illustrated that the treatment, placebo and control groups' mean pre- and post-test scores remained relatively stable over time.

Summary

This study involved the investigation of the effect of the Magic Circle on the self-concept of fourth and fifth grade students. Various dimensions of self-concept were

measured through the administration of five instruments.

The results of a one-way analysis of variance on pre-test mean scores for the Student's Perception of Ability Scale, Behavior Rating Form, Kinetic Family Drawings and How I Feel About Others In My Class sociogram each indicated that the treatment, placebo and control groups were comparable with regards to variance. The one-way analysis of variance indicated a significant difference in mean scores among the treatment, placebo and control groups on the pre-test of the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale.

A three-way analysis on the factors of Sex, Time and Groups indicated that the sex factor had no significant effect on the mean scores for the Student's Perception of Ability Scale, Behavior Rating Form, Kinetic Family Drawings and the How I Feel About Others In My Class sociogram. The finding of the three-way analysis of variance on the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale scores indicated a significant Time x Groups x Sex interaction effect which was due to a summation of the treatment, placebo and control groups' mean scores with unequal variance.

The data analysis, collapsed by Sex, focused on Time x Groups factors utilizing a two-way analysis of variance with repeated measures. To test the null hypotheses, a two-way analysis of variance was performed on the data collected for the Student's Perception of Ability Scale, Behavior Rating Form, Kinetic Family Drawings and the How I Feel About My Class sociogram. Analysis of the data indicated

that there was no significant difference among the treatment, placebo and control groups on any of these four instruments. The Time effect was only significant for the Behavior Rating Form scores. This Time effect was a summation effect due to increase in post-test scores across the three groups. No significant Groups x Time interaction effects was found.

Since the one-way analysis of variance indicated that the groups' pre-test means were unequal, analysis of covariance employing adjusted means was utilized to control for unequal variance among the treatment, placebo and control post-test means on the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale. There was no significant difference among the groups' adjusted post-test mean scores.

Results of this study indicated that there was no significant difference among the Magic Circle (treatment) group, the Expressive Arts (placebo) group and the Independent Reading (control) group in terms of pre- and post-test scores on any of the five instruments administered to measure self-concept. Therefore, the null hypotheses were accepted.

CHAPTER V

Summary, Discussion and Implications

The Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to investigate the effects of the Magic Circle program on the self-concepts of fourth and fifth grade students.

The Sample

The sample consisted of 51 students from two classrooms within the same school. In each of these classrooms, the students were randomly assigned to the following three groups: the Magic Circle (treatment) group, the Expressive Arts (placebo) group, and the Independent Reading (control) group.

The Instruments

Five instruments were administered in order to measure various dimensions of self-concept such as the following:

1. General self-concept scores by self-report as measured by the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale,
2. Achievement self-concept scores by self-report as measured by the Student's Perception of Ability Scale,
3. External behavior evaluation of children's self-concept rated by teachers on the Behavior Rating Form,
4. Self-concept rating of children by an independent researcher on the Kinetic Family Drawings,
5. Self-concept rating of children by peers on a sociogram entitled How I Feel About Others In My Class.

The Method

These five instruments were administered during the second week of the school year. Over a 10-week period, the Magic Circle (treatment) group, the Expressive Arts (placebo) group and the Independent Reading (control) group met twice weekly. Each of these sessions were 30 minutes in length.

Upon termination of the treatment, the same five instruments were readministered. The post-testing took place the week prior to Christmas vacation.

The Findings

The results of a one-way analysis of variance on pre-test mean scores indicated that the treatment, placebo and control groups were comparable with regards to variance on all instrument measurements except for the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale.

A three-way analysis of variance on the factor of Sex, Time and Groups indicated that the sex factor had no significant effect on the mean scores for the Student's Perception of Ability Scale, Behavior Rating Form, Kinetic Family Drawings and the How I Feel About Others In My Class sociogram. The findings of the three-way analysis of variance on the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale scores indicated a significant Time x Groups x Sex interaction effect which was due to a summation of the treatment, placebo and control groups' mean scores with unequal variance.

The data analysis, collapsed by Sex, focused on Time x Groups factors utilizing a two-way analysis of variance with repeated measures. To test the null hypotheses, a two-way analysis of variance was performed on the data collected for the Student's Perception of Ability Scale, Behavior Rating Form, Kinetic Family Drawings and the How I Feel About Others In My Class sociogram. Analysis of the data indicated that there were no significant differences among the treatment, placebo and control groups on any of these four instruments. The Time effect was a summation effect due to increase in post-test scores across the three groups. No significant Groups x Time interaction effects was found.

Since the one-way analysis of variance indicated that the groups' pre-test means were unequal, analysis of covariance employing adjusted means utilized to control for unequal variance among the treatment, placebo and control post-test means on the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale. There was no significant difference between groups' adjusted post-test mean scores.

Results of this study indicated that there was no significant difference among the Magic Circle (treatment) group, the Expressive Arts (placebo) group and the Independent Reading (control) group in terms of pre- and post-test scores on any of the five instruments administered to measure self-concept. Therefore, the null hypotheses were accepted.

Discussion and Implications for Further Research

The self-concept is one of the most difficult aspects of human behavior to measure because of its multidimensional nature. Firstly, it is difficult to identify items that are sensitive in reflecting change in self-perception as it is reported by respondents, particularly if the child has limited cognitive development because of age. Secondly, it is not certain at what age or stage of cognitive development an individual is able to report information about self with some degree of accuracy and consistency. Thirdly, defensiveness creates problems in research in that the impression some individuals hold of themselves may be unrealistic. Individuals with highly defensive behaviors who in a pre-test may report a healthy self-concept may after a developmental program allow more realistic impressions into their awareness and thus in the post-test may report a lower self-concept. Fourthly, children may assess their self-concept in terms of socially approved responses thus responding on the scale according to what they think the researcher wishes to hear rather than how they really feel about themselves (Eldridge, Wilmer, Barcikowski, & Bauer, 1977).

Affective development programs such as the Magic Circle are frequently implemented in schools without having been adequately researched. Unsubstantiated claims are sometimes made about the positive effects on the self-concepts of children who participate in such a program (McMurry, 1977). "Logically the program would appear to have validity

but experimentally it has not been established" (Terry, 1976b, p. 2008). The validity and reliability of self-concept instruments is always a consideration in research studies involving them (Terry, 1976b). Terry stated that his "recommendation for further research would be to use several instruments of self-concept and...extend the treatment...to a longer time" (p. 2008).

Terry (1976b) concluded:

> Until the validity of such a program is established, its use is seriously questioned. The only justification for the continued use at this time appears to be the finding that it at least does not do any harm since significant differences were not found between the experimental and control group (p. 2088).

There is a real need for a valid affective development program since several studies have indicated that children's self-concepts seem to decline as the children pass through the elementary grades (Kagan & Moss, 1962; West, 1976). West (1976) stated that there was "a significant difference among children's mean self-concept scores in grade one, three and six. First grade children's means were higher than third and sixth grade children" (p. 2116).

Swindlehurst (1977) emphasized that an affective development program does not exist in isolation from the child's environment:

> Program developers and implementers tend to view developmental guidance programs as a remedy for all that is wrong with our current educational system. It is, however, only one aspect of the total system. Any changes in the fundamental process involves other areas as well. It is imperative that parent involvement, teacher education and administrative influences also be considered (p. 83).

Research investigation of the effects of the Magic Circle on the self-concept of children has been limited. The studies that have been reported have produced inconclusive or conflicting results. It would therefore be presumptuous to attempt to draw any definite conclusion or generalization on the basis of these few findings. The following potential areas of related research are seen as meaningful:

1. In this study, the effectiveness of the Magic Circle program was limited to evaluation across two grade levels. The effectiveness of the Magic Circle program should be evaluated across all the elementary grade levels. This would determine whether the program is more effective with a particular age group.
2. In this study, the population consisted of students in one school. It would be of value to utilize a large sample size with students from various socio-economic backgrounds.
3. The effects of the Magic Circle program on the self-concepts of children should be compared with the effects of other developmental and expressive programs. These programs include DUSO (Dinkmeyer, 1970), TAD (Dupont, Gardner, & Brody, 1974) and FOCUS (Anderson & Henner, 1972).
4. In this study, the Magic Circle program was implemented twice weekly over a 10-week period. The Magic Circle is a sequential program designed to be utilized daily from grade to grade. It would be of value to investigate the daily use of this program over a period of at least one school year, preferrably more.

5. Post-testing, in this study, involved the re-administration of the five instruments utilized in pre-testing. Provisions should be made for alternate test forms so that subjects are not exposed to post-test items during pre-testing. Most of the self-concept instruments possessing high validity do not have alternate test forms. It is recommended that alternate test forms be developed.
6. In this study, subjects were pre-tested during the second week of the school year. Post-testing took place the week prior to Christmas Holidays. At the time of the pre-testing, subjects may have been anticipating the new school year after the prolonged summer holiday of 2 1/2 months. At the time of post-testing subjects had already received their first report cards and were well into their school work. Thus, the subjects may have had a more realistic concept of their school performance. Subjects may have been looking forward to leaving school and starting their Christmas Holidays. It is suggested that in further research studies, the time of year be taken into account.
7. One of the weaknesses of this study was that subjects were aware that they were being assessed at the time of pre-testing and suspicion was expressed by subjects as to the confidentiality of test results. Several subjects indicated to the group leaders that at the time of pre-test-

ing they made socially desirable responses on the self-report scales. It would be worthwhile in further research for the researcher to establish creditability with the subjects before pre-testing.

8. This study involved a heterogeneous grouping of subjects. It would be of value to study contrasting personality types such as introverted-extraverted and nonaggressive-aggressive in order to investigate the effects of the Magic Circle on specific personality types.
9. In this study, the Magic Circle (treatment) was compared to a placebo as well as a control group. It is suggested that a similar design be implemented in further research studies in order to distinguish between changes due to increased attention (placebo) and those due to increased self-concept (treatment).
10. The present study made use of several self-concept instruments such as the following: self-report, external behavioral evaluation, peer rating and projective testing. It is suggested that further research studies use several instruments of self-concept since self-concept is multidimensional.
11. The present study was limited to the investigation of the effects of the Magic Circle on the self-concepts of children from two grade levels. It would be valuable to investigate the effects of the Magic Circle on such variables as: awareness

and respect for self and others, communication and language skills, relationship skills, and performance and intellectual functioning.

12. The present study was limited to the utilization of test based evaluation of the Magic Circle Program. It would be of value to continue the investigation of this program utilizing different evaluative techniques. A case study approach utilizing case notes of parents' perceptions of their children pre- and post-treatment and video taping or audio taping the sessions with independent observers rating the subjects' behaviors would also be of value.

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APPENDIX A

THE PIERS-HARRIS CHILDREN'S SELF-CONCEPT SCALE

Here are a set of statements. Some of them are true of you and so you will circle the yes. Some are not true of you and so you will circle the no. Answer every question even if some are hard to decide, but no not circle both yes and no. Remember, circle the yes if the statement is generally like you, or circle the no if the statement is generally not like you. There are no right or wrong answers. Only you can tell us how you feel about yourself, so we hope you will mark the way you really feel inside.

1. My classmates make fun of me.....yes no
2. I am a happy person.....yes no
3. It is hard for me to make friends.....yes no
4. I am often sad.....yes no
5. I am smart.....yes no
6. I am shy.....yes no
7. I get nervous when the teacher calls on me....yes no
8. My looks bother me.....yes no
9. When I grow up, I will be an important person.yes no
10. I get worried when we have tests in school....yes no
11. I am unpopular.....yes no
12. I am well behaved in school.....yes no
13. It is usually my fault when something goes wrong.....yes no
14. I cause trouble to my family.....yes no
15. I am strong.....yes no
16. I have good ideas.....yes no
17. I am an important member of my family.....yes no
18. I usually want my own way.....yes no
19. I am good at making things with my hands.....yes no

20. I give up easily.....yes no
21. I am good in my school work.....yes no
22. I do many bad things.....yes no
23. I can draw well.....yes no
24. I am good in music.....yes no
25. I behave badly at home.....yes no
26. I am slow in finishing my school work.....yes no
27. I am an important member of my class.....yes no
28. I am nervous.....yes no
29. I have pretty eyes.....yes no
30. I can give a good report in front of the classyes no
31. I pick on my brother(s) and sister(s).....yes no
32. In school I am a dreamer.....yes no
33. My friends like my ideas.....yes no
34. I often get into trouble.....yes no
35. I am obedient at home.....yes no
36. I am lucky.....yes no
37. I worry a lot.....yes no
38. My parents expect too much of me.....yes no
39. I like being the way I am.....yes no
40. I feel left out of things.....yes no
41. I have nice hair.....yes no
42. I often volunteer in school.....yes no
43. I wish I were different.....yes no
44. I sleep well at night.....yes no
45. I hate school.....yes no
46. I am among the last to be chosen for games....yes no

47. I am sick at lot.....yes no

48. I am often mean to other people.....yes no

49. My classmates in school think I have good ideas.....yes no

50. I am unhappy.....yes no

51. I have many friends.....yes no

52. I am cheerful.....yes no

53. I am dumb about most things.....yes no

54. I am good looking.....yes no

55. I have lots of pep.....yes no

56. I get into a lot of fights.....yes no

57. I am popular with boys.....yes no

58. People pick on me.....yes no

59. My family is disappointed in me.....yes no

60. I have a pleasant face.....yes no

61. When I try to make something, everything seems to go wrong.....yes no

62. I am picked on at home.....yes no

63. I am a leader in games and sports.....yes no

64. I am clumsy.....yes no

65. In games and sports, I watch instead of play..yes no

66. I forget what I learn.....yes no

67. I am easy to get along with.....yes no

68. I lose my temper easily.....yes no

69. I am popular with girls.....yes no

70. I am a good reader.....yes no

71. I would rather work alone than with a group...yes no

72. I like my brother (sister).....yes no

73. I have a good figure.....yes no

74. I am often afraid.....yes no

75. I am always dropping or breaking things.....yes no

76. I can be trusted.....yes no

77. I am different from other people.....yes no

78. I think bad thoughts.....yes no

79. I cry easily.....yes no

80. I am a good person.....yes no

APPENDIX B

STUDENT'S PERCEPTION OF ABILITY SCALE

1. I always understand everything I read.....yes no
2. My school work is usually untidy.....yes no
3. All new words are easy for me to spell.....yes no
4. I find it hard to understand what I have to do..yes no
5. I think my school work is really good.....yes no
6. I usually have problems understanding what I read.....yes no
7. I am one of the smartest kids in the class.....yes no
8. I have neat printing.....yes no
9. I usually finish my schoolwork.....yes no
10. I am unhappy with how I read.....yes no
11. I like reading.....yes no
12. My printing is perfect.....yes no
13. I am good at spelling.....yes no
14. I make many mistakes in school.....yes no
15. I have problems in spelling.....yes no
16. I like to read to my parents.....yes no
17. I am happy with the way I spell.....yes no
18. I like making up endings to stories.....yes no
19. My teacher thinks I write poor stories.....yes no
20. I am poor at subtraction.....yes no
21. I like to answer questions.....yes no
22. Working with my hands is hard.....yes no
23. I like doing printing.....yes no
24. I have trouble drawing pictures.....yes no
25. I am poor at silent reading.....yes no
26. I have problems printing neatly.....yes no
27. I am good with my times tables.....yes no

28. I am good at drawing.....yes no

29. When school gets tough I give up.....yes no

30. I like to do story problems.....yes no

31. My friends read better than I do.....yes no

32. I am good at printing.....yes no

33. I always do neat work.....yes no

34. I have difficulty getting my arithmetic finished on time.....yes no

35. I have difficulty working with numbers.....yes no

36. I like spelling.....yes no

37. I like arithmetic.....yes no

38. I am a messy writer.....yes no

39. Tests are easy for me to take.....yes no

40. I like to sound out words.....yes no

41. My teacher often makes me write my work again.yes no

42. I have difficulty looking up words in the dictionary.....yes no

43. I like to use big words when I talk.....yes no

44. I like telling my friends about school work...yes no

45. My teacher thinks I am dumb in arithmetic.....yes no

46. I like going to school.....yes no

47. I like playing spelling games.....yes no

48. I have difficulty thinking up good stories....yes no

49. My spelling is always right.....yes no

50. Saying new words is hard for me.....yes no

51. I am unhappy with how I do arithmetic.....yes no

52. I am a smart kid.....yes no

53. I have difficulty doing what my teacher says..yes no

54. I find spelling hard.....yes no

55. I usually get my arithmetic right.....yes no

56. I find reading hard.....yes no

57. I am unhappy with my printing.....yes no

58. I am a good reader.....yes no

59. I am slow at spelling.....yes no

60. I am a slow reader.....yes no

61. In school I find new things difficult to learn.....yes no

62. I usually spell words right.....yes no

63. My teacher thinks I am good at printing.....yes no

64. All new words are hard for me to understand..yes no

65. I have trouble telling others what I mean....yes no

66. I am good at arithmetic.....yes no

67. I like to tell stories in class.....yes no

68. I feel I often say the wrong things.....yes no

69. I find multiplication fun.....yes no

70. I always get everything in arithmetic right..yes no

APPENDIX C

BEHAVIOR RATING SCALE

1. Does this child adopt easily to new situations, feel comfortable in new settings, enter easily into new activities?

   ..... always ..... usually ..... sometimes

   ..... seldom ..... never.

2. Does this child hesitate to express his opinions, as evidenced by extreme caution, failure to contribute, or a subdued manner in speaking situations?

   ..... always ..... usually ..... sometimes

   ..... seldom ..... never.

3. Does this child become upset by failures or other strong stresses as evidenced by such behaviors as pouting, whining, or withdrawing?

   ..... always ..... usually ..... sometimes

   ..... seldom ..... never.

4. How often is this child chosen for activities by his classmates? Is his companionship sought for and valued?

   ..... always ..... usually ..... sometimes

   ..... seldom ..... never.

5. Does this child become alarmed or frightened easily? Does he become very restless or jittery when procedures are changed, exams are scheduled or strange individuals are in the room?

   ..... always ..... usually ..... sometimes

   ..... seldom ..... never.

6. Does this child seek much support and reassurance from his peers or the teacher, as evidenced by seeking their nearness or frequent inquiries as to whether he is doing well?

..... always ..... usually ..... sometimes

..... seldom ..... never.

7. When this child is scolded or criticized, does he become either very aggressive or very sullen and submissive?

..... always ..... usually ..... sometimes

..... seldom ..... never.

8. Does this child deprecate his school work, grades, activities, and work products? Does he indicate he is not doing well as expected?

..... always ..... usually ..... sometimes

..... seldom ..... never.

9. Does this child show confidence and assurance in his actions toward his teachers and classmates?

..... always ..... usually ..... sometimes

..... seldom ..... never.

10. To what extent does this child show a sense of self-esteem, self-respect, and appreciation of his own worthiness?

..... very strong ..... strong ..... medium

..... mild ..... weak

11. Does this child publicly brag or boast about his exploits?

..... always ..... usually ..... sometimes

..... seldom ..... never.

12. Does this child attempt to dominate or bully other children?

..... always ..... usually ..... sometimes

..... seldom ..... never.

13. Does this child continually seek attention, as evidenced by such behaviors as speaking out of turn and making unnecessary noises?

..... always ..... usually ..... sometimes

..... seldom ..... never.

Two Scores: Esteem Behavior (1-10)
Defensive Behavior (11-13)
Maximum 50/15

APPENDIX D

KINETIC FAMILY DRAWINGS

Procedure:

The drawings are obtained from children individually, not in group sessions. The child is asked to seat himself on a small chair at a table of appropriate height. A sheet of plain white, 11" by 8 1/2" paper is placed on the table directly in front of him. A pencil (No. 2) is place in the center of the paper and he is asked to:

> "Draw a picture of everyone in your family, including you, doing something. Try to draw whole people, not cartoons or stick people. Remember, make everyone doing something - some kind of action."

The examiner then leaves the room and checks periodically. The situation is terminated when the child indicates verbally or by gesture that he has finished. No time limit is made. Noncompliance is extremely rare. If the child says, "I can't," he is encouraged periodically and left in the room until completion of the K-F-D.

APPENDIX E

HOW I FEEL ABOUT THE OTHERS IN MY CLASS

Everybody has different feelings about everybody else. We like some people a lot, some a little bit, and some not at all. Sometimes we think it is not proper or polite to dislike other people, but when we are really honest about it we know that everyone has some negative feelings about some of the people he knows. There are some people you like a lot and some you don't like. There are some people who like you a lot and some who don't like you at all. If the teacher knows the way you really feel about other members of your class, he can often plan things better. There are no right or wrong answers.

1. Which three persons in this class do you personally like the most? Using your class list with names and numbers, write the three numbers in the blanks.

   The three I like most are: _____

   _____

   _____

2. Which three persons do you personally like the least? Write the numbers in the blanks.

   The three I like least are: _____

   _____

   _____

APPENDIX F

TABLE I

Analysis of Variance - Groups x Sex s Time - on the Student's Perception of Ability Scale

Source	df	M.S.	F
Between	47		
Groups	2	401.94	1.23
Sex	1	468.19	1.43
Groups x Sex	2	121.31	0.37
Error	42	326.67	
Within	48		
Time	1	15.06	0.28
Time x Groups	2	64.31	1.21
Time x Sex	1	1.50	0.03
Time x Groups x Sex	2	9.41	0.18
Error	42	53.36	

TABLE II

Analysis of Variance - Groups x Sex x Time -

on the Behavior Rating Form

Source	df	M.S.	F
Between	47		
Groups	2	171.09	0.98
Sex	1	92.00	0.53
Groups x Sex	2	4.38	0.03
Error	42	173.80	
Within	48		
Time	1	693.31	25.62**
Time x Groups	2	6.22	0.23
Time x Sex	1	45.50	1.68
Time x Groups x Sex	2	9.06	0.33
Error	42	27.07	

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

TABLE III

Analysis of Variance - Groups x Sex x Time -

on the Kinetic Family Drawings

Source	Df	M.S.	F
Between	47		
Groups	2	54.19	0.11
Sex	1	1504.19	2.91
Groups x Sex	2	704.16	1.36
Error	42	516.07	
Within	48		
Time	1	4.19	0.02
Time x Groups	2	514.16	0.66
Time x Sex	1	4.13	0.02
Time x Groups x Sex	2	204.19	0.87
Error	42	235.12	

TABLE IV

Analysis of Variance - Groups x Sex x Time -

on the How I Feel About Others In My Class sociogram

Source	df	M.S.	F
Between	47		
Groups	2	488.00	0.84
Sex	1	1344.00	0.49
Groups x Sex	2	2456.00	0.89
Error	42		
Within	48		
Time	1	704.00	1.31
Time x Groups	2	472.00	0.88
Time x Sex	1	256.00	0.48
Time x Groups x Sex	2	40.00	0.07
Error	42	535.62	

TABLE V

Analysis of Variance - Groups x Sex x Time -
on the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale

Source	df	M.S.	F
Between	47		
Groups	2	477.50	0.05
Sex	1	13.00	0.09
Groups x Sex	2	103.00	0.72
Error	42	143.86	
Within	48		
Time	1	107.00	3.87
Time x Groups	2	8.50	0.74
Time x Sex	1	11.00	0.40
Time x Groups x Sex	2	161.50	5.85*
Error	42	27.62	

* $p < .05$

APPENDIX G

OBSERVATIONS BY THE MAGIC CIRCLE LEADER

LESSON 1

Theme: Awareness

Topic: A person I'd like to be like

Glenys Perry (1979) stated "Cheryl and Jackie from room 9 did not talk except when asked to summarize what others had said. Zainell did not contribute."

LESSON 2

Theme: Awareness

Topic: A good friend

Glenys Perry (1979) commented that "Zainell said that Darren was a good friend. This seemed to embarrass both boys."

LESSON 3

Theme: Awareness

Topic: An adventure I had

Glenys Perry (1979) stated "Jackie and Zainell did not contribute but may have if there had been more time."

LESSON 8

Theme: Social Interaction

Topic: A person I feel safe with

Glenys Perry (1979) commented that "with Travis gone the session with room 8 went very well."

LESSON 9

Theme: Social Interaction

Topic: Someone I don't trust very much

Glenys Perry (1979) stated that "all sessions went extremely well. Travis led room 8. All students' participated except Cheryl who repeated what another said."

LESSON 8

Theme: Social Interaction

Topic: A time when I trusted myself

Glenys Perry (1979) commented that "the session went very well as far as discipline was concerned."

LESSON 20

Exercise: Writing something positive on each others backs

Glenys Perry (1979) stated that "each group enjoyed this exercise very much. Everyone was positive today and everything went well."